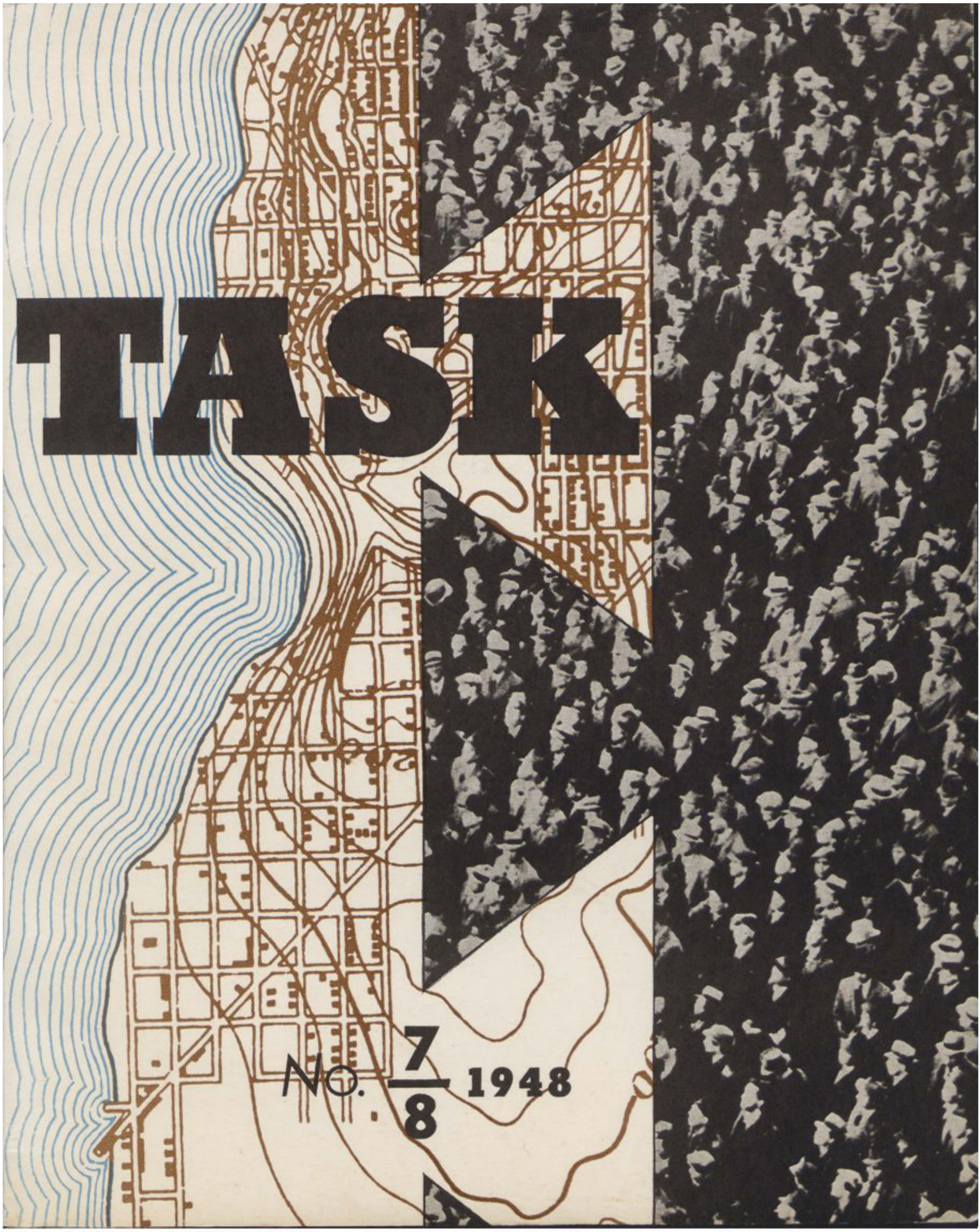
TASK
NO. 7/8 1948

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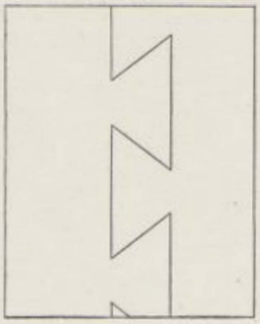

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Neither the Editorial Council nor the staff necessarily share the views expressed by the authors.

This is the first postwar issue of TASK.

The original impetus for TASK came from students and teachers in Cambridge, Massachusetts. It was founded before the war to examine the physical, social and economic aspects of city and resources planning, and of housing and architecture. It aimed to establish the broadest exchange of information, ideas, and experiences among architects, planners, housers, other professionals, students, and those generally interested in these and related fields. Before its publication was suspended during the war, six issues were published, the last three in New York, where Henry H. Reed, Jr. generously assumed the responsibility for them.

TASK has been revived because of the frequent requests of people who feel a need for the stimulus and factual material which such a publication can offer. TASK's readers and friends have believed that a forum such as TASK can help to formulate and express a higher standard of demand than prevails at present for homes, communities and architecture, and for the planning of cities, regions and the nation. They also feel that TASK's value as a medium of expression for students and new authors and as a provoker of controversy and new ideas should be preserved and strengthened.

Thus TASK has been revived. Whether it will flourish will depend on you, its friends and readers. The direction it takes also will depend on you. TASK has striven for ever broader representation — in ideas, authors and audience. It needs suggestions and active support.

It has been suggested by some that TASK concentrate on single-purpose issues, as does this edition. Among the subjects proposed are: politics and planning, civic design and aesthetics, industrial location and buildings, national planning and regional resources development.

Annual, semi-annual and quarterly publication has been variously proposed. Among the policy suggestions is one that TASK be an annual summary and critique of the planning and architectural developments of the year.

We all must realize that the frequency of publication depends on the support TASK receives. This issue is an annual (serving as an equivalent of two issues of the former TASK), supported largely by the generosity of individual financial donors and voluntary editorial efforts. Though again published in Cambridge where it originated, students although greatly interested were in general, under the pressure of postwar education, unable to assist TASK extensively. Also it is doubtful whether, with irregular financial support, and without institutional affiliation, TASK can appear regularly.

Prior to publication, inquiries were sent to those of TASK's subscribers whose addresses might have changed during the interim period. Comments were sought on return postcards. Although there were some chiding, and often unfortunately true, remarks on the circulation operations of TASK, such as, "I wrote you and never heard from you at all", the consensus was that a revived TASK would be welcomed as a most valuable supplement to the other journals in architecture, planning and related fields. Not all were as extravagant in praise as the man who wrote, "I think TASK is the best magazine in the world", but card after card stated, "look forward to this issue with great eagerness", or, "so glad that TASK will be out again". A minister from the state of Washington wrote, "I wish to continue indefinitely". Encouraging cards came from silversmiths, sociologists, interior decorators, doctors, clergymen, industrialists, real estate and commercial firms, government officials, labor union officials and many others of diverse interests, as well as from architects and planners.

Such encouragement has prompted TASK to reappear. Its future will be determined by your desires and participation.

CONTENTS

RECONSTRUCTION

Catherine Bauer

In this issue of TASK the editors have brought together material on housing and town planning from the most varied sources and situations: European countries devastated by the war; Latin America on the threshold of industrialization; two colonial outposts in Africa; and nations as fundamentally different in their political-economic structure as Britain, the USA, and the USSR. Statements from international organizations are included, and one curiously pertinent document on the planning outlook for Tokyo.

Diverse though it is, however, the major interest of this material lies in the fact that the problems and issues, the questions posed and even some of the answers, are so similar. The housing crisis, in the first place, is world-wide. It results not only from war destruction and war-time building stoppage but also from longer-term factors: the rising standard of demand; greater recognition of the importance of family living conditions to national health and welfare; vast movements of population; and building and planning techniques increasingly inadequate to the job they are called on to perform. The Social Commission of UN reports that "there is at present an urgent need for some 100,000,000 additional dwellings. One fifth of this figure is attributable to war destruction and one fifth to population growth and migrations, while three fifths of this vast housing need is the legacy of the slums aggravated by the almost total cessation of civilian building activity during the war." And in the debates leading toward establishment of a housing and town planning office in UN, there was eloquent argument to prove that the needs of "under-developed" countries are as urgent as those of areas bombed and blitzed.

Shelter is second only to food as a human necessity. Even countries battling against outright starvation must also worry about walls and roofs and sanitation. But houses are "capital goods" in a social as well as economic sense, and even the most purely "emergency" housing program has profound implications far beyond the question of immediate protection against the elements. The quality and quantity of food available may change completely, with luck and foresight, from one year to the next. But if bad housing is put up, if bombed or blighted areas are rebuilt incorporating the same old evils, if chaotic shacktowns and dreary suburbs and unrelated industries straggle out still farther from cities which are already unworkable, the results will affect family and civic and national life for generations. And if on the other hand the framework for a pleasanter, healthier and more efficient human environment is being developed, however slowly and incompletely, the ultimate effect may be more important than much of the political news that makes the headlines.

In a way, therefore, the current scene with respect to housing and city building has a special significance. It is one basic test, of course, of the will to survive, and the ruin and demoralization of Germany are fully demonstrated by the apparent lack of positive ideas about reconstruction in a country with such a long and solid city-building tradition. And it should provide some index of wealth and resources and economic stability, but the correlation here is not as great as one might expect. The English people, for instance, although facing a dire emergency, have made bold and progressive long-term decisions about the future of their cities and countryside, while we in America in the midst of a record boom have not even figured out

how to build houses for our veterans. The devastated cities of England and Holland, Finland, Poland and Russia, all seem to have clearer and brighter convictions as to their future than, say, the cities of France, which suffered much less destruction. Perhaps the real significance of planning and building activity in a crisis like the present one is that it is a concrete expression of social purpose, of the capacity for fresh ideas and the ability to develop new instruments to carry them out.

That there is a vast and growing and almost universal interest in the question of reorganizing and improving human environment, even in countries with little official policy or real achievement as yet, is obvious. The remarkable thing is that the main issues seem to be pretty much the same the world over.

In practically every country, for instance, whether capitalist, socialist, communist, or pre-industrial, it is now generally assumed that decent modern housing *for all* is both a social necessity and an ultimate possibility, and that government has some degree of responsibility for its achievement. This is so true that it sounds like a bromide today, but in how many countries was it true a generation ago? Everywhere, from South Africa to Peru to Siberia, there is discussion of minimum standards of space, family privacy, and equipment. The force of this principle as a symbol of peace and human progress is well exemplified by the Dutch architects who met in underground groups throughout the war to draw up a platform for improved postwar housing and community standards.

Along with bare minima, there is also a growing concern for housing that really suits the specific needs of different kinds of people. The general trend is away from the too standardized local housing types of the past, whatever they were. In England, Canada and the USA, for instance, where one family homes have been the only recognized ideal, in America almost wholly for sale, there is a demand for more and better rental housing including modern apartments which really facilitate convenient group living without sacrifice of amenity, for those who want to live that way. On the European continent, on the other hand, where multi-family housing was pretty much the rule in big cities, an opposite movement is clearly visible. In Moscow, Stockholm, Zürich, and Amsterdam, for example, there is a marked trend toward one and two story construction and the idea that houses with gardens should be available for most families with small children. And in both cases official policy is geared to the way real people want to live and the need for *choice*, not to abstract theories about "collectivism" versus "individualism". All over the western world, likewise, special attention is being given to the housing needs of old people, a reflection of demographic and social trends which know no political boundaries.

Careful differentiation of open space and street types for different kinds of use is a parallel trend, and the result is a "super-block" pattern which, whether in Montevideo or Stalingrad or Los Angeles, serves new purposes which are entirely different from these embodied in the old-fashioned grid.

Everywhere also there is particular concern for the "neighborhood", as the unit which gives social form and meaning to housing standards on the one hand, and human scale to city planning on the other. What *is* a neighborhood and what communal facilities should it include? This is a central question in Magnitogorsk and Manchester, as it is in Chicago. And the answers developed by the official planners for Warsaw are remarkably similar to those worked out in the Regional Plan for New York and later for the London County Plan. It is simply a fact of

the twentieth century that people live and function in groups and require more and more communal facilities, whatever their political theories.

And, perhaps curiously, the question of mixing up different kinds of people and different dwelling types in one neighborhood — of including some low density private homes in central areas and multi-family dwellings in new communities on vacant land, and different social and economic groups in both — is apparently a more lively issue in England and the USA than it is in Russia and Poland.

What makes a "good" city today, in the broadest terms of scale and functional organization? This is likewise a question under fresh consideration all over the world. Perhaps the most dramatic single answer is that of Bizerte in Tunisia which, 77% destroyed, decided to rebuild itself on an entirely different and better site, by wholly modern standards. But almost every big city (except, strangely enough, in the United States) is planning for lower densities in its central areas. In the reconstruction plans for Rotterdam, Warsaw, Moscow and London alike, the trend toward decentralization is embraced and encouraged. A network of open space is introduced, for recreation and neighborhood protection, for public dignity and general amenity, as integral to the city plan as the transportation net. And in most cities outside the United States there is a corollary concern to focus new outlying development in planned communities carefully related to work places and central districts and with open space between. Industrial location is not only being coordinated with overall metropolitan plans: it is also geared to broader regional considerations. In Britain, Sweden, Russia and Holland, and perhaps in the near future in India and other "backward" sections of the world, there is a growing effort to guide industry into underdeveloped or badly balanced areas — an effort which accounts for much of the international prestige of our own TVA.

What is in many ways the boldest and most far-reaching national philosophy and international leadership on physical planning questions comes not from a "new" country nor yet from an especially "radical" one, but from England. The biggest town planning news of the century is her New Towns policy, accompanied by land use controls designed specifically to prevent sporadic or "dormitory" development in the metropolitan suburbs, and to protect rural areas.

Partly in self-defense perhaps, as decentralization is more honestly faced and as the Garden City movement takes on fresh impetus, many old metropolitan centers are seeking to justify themselves anew as necessary and desirable entities. That living and working conditions must be drastically improved is generally recognized. But Dudok's article and illustrations on his proposed plan for The Hague go deeper than this. Here is an eloquent case for the big city as something more than a senile overgrowth to be endured. It is a case for recognizing and fulfilling the one essential function of a metropolis as the point of contact, spiritual as well as material, among the communities of a region, *and* between the region and the world. And also, in a cultural sense, between the past, the present and the future. It is this symbolic significance of the city which is perhaps the best argument (against many excellent arguments on the other side) for Dudok's thesis that top planning leadership should come from architects.

The material in this issue of TASK is extremely varied but all of it deals, in one way or another, with universal issues. Minimum standards, neighborhood forms, new towns and the revivification of old cities, the relation of modern social and physical science to architectural expression, the political dynamics of the planning process — these are all questions which transcend national barriers. Here

is a bona fide point of contact between western democracy, capitalist or socialist, and communism, and between "advanced" and "under-developed" countries.

The degree of international influence and fellowship in such a strictly localized activity as building has always been remarkable, straight through from Greece and Rome to the super-nationalistic 19th and 20th centuries. Every local experiment tends to become an active part of the world's heritage in a surprisingly short space of time. Social Democratic Germany, weak and short-lived though it was, yet made a major and lasting contribution to the world-wide renaissance in architecture and community planning. The Scandinavian countries have had an influence out of all proportion to their size. The British may be harassed and temporarily frustrated by the inability to realize their bold plans as rapidly as they had hoped, but they have already influenced the planning philosophy of a dozen other countries. And behind the so-called "Iron Curtain," the ideas of Frank Lloyd Wright, Lewis Mumford, Ebenezer Howard, Le Corbusier and Gropius vie with the Russians' own ideas in the determination of policy, and experience is tested against the housing and planning achievements of other nations. Broad-based international fellowship and cross-fertilization in this field is being revived and intensified, through the International Federation for Housing and Town Planning, the International Union of Architects, and UNESCO, and a special section is about to be established in the United Nations itself.

The significance of this interplay is suggested, in broader terms, by Julian Huxley in his recent pamphlet outlining a purpose and philosophy for UNESCO. " . . . The unifying of traditions in a single common pool of experience, awareness and purpose is the necessary prerequisite for further major progress in human evolution. Accordingly, although political unification in some sort of world government will be required for the definitive attainment of this stage, unification in the things of the mind is not only necessary but can pave the way for other types of unification. . . . A unified pool of tradition for the human species as a whole . . . must include the unity-in-variety of the world's art and culture as well as the promotion of one single pool of scientific knowledge. But it must also eventually include a unified common outlook and a common set of purposes."

Architecture, housing and city planning are pre-eminently arts of peace. Through them there is, unmistakably, a drive toward a "single pool of scientific knowledge" for maximum human benefit, and toward a world culture, richly varied in detail but nevertheless expressing the basic unity of mankind. And their importance is magnified in a world which is operating more and more dangerously, at the diplomatic level, in terms of destruction rather than construction. That fine phrase devised by a 19th century geographer, "The Earth as Modified by Human Action", has a large question-mark after it today, with alternative and diametrically opposite answers for the future. But a world in which so many people, as individuals and as nations, are creatively concerned about the quality of their home life and cities a generation hence is not a world wholly without hope or health or capacity for peaceful progress.

RECONSTRUCTION: THE HAGUE

Willem M. Dudok

Willem M. Dudok, though one of the most famous of Dutch architects, was trained as a military engineer. He is perhaps best known for his complex of buildings built at Hilversum. He was commissioned by The Hague to redesign and reconstruct that city.

THE task, placed upon my shoulders, of projecting a town plan for The Hague, is not nearly completed; this great work demands much more than the one and a half years that I have been able to devote to it. This article can only indicate a few fragments of the extensive town-complex, which so clearly demands a new organic order and a logical reconstruction.

It was my task to prepare as quickly as possible a plan for the reconstruction of two major destroyed areas; after which the development of a plan for the resort Scheveningen and the whole community will be undertaken.

I should like in the first place to give you a general impression of my conception of this task.

However urgent the reconstruction of the destroyed areas may be, it would be unwise to venture on it before forming at least a rough plan for the development of the town as a whole, taking into consideration its special character.

Beside the stately Amsterdam and the toiling Rotterdam, The Hague too has its very specific character. Here, one is less serious: more gay, lighter hearted. Here, in the finest parts of the town, one sees Dutch stateliness at its best, and the town-aspect has a particular grace. The Hague is primarily and pre-eminently a residential town and in this quality has attracted to it a certain number of workers. For example, The Hague has become the seat of the braintrusts of many big companies, so that it is no longer a town of "idle hours", but also a working town. We even cherish higher ambitions for it. The Hague is the Royal Residence and has, since the war, gained in importance as a diplomatical center and even as an international center: the Court of Arbitration has its headquarters here and this town may well become the seat of more institutions of international cooperation; in which case we must not make the mistake, imputed to us long ago of: "giving too little and asking too much". It is important that the town be built up again to increase its representative significance: a new government center of large proportions must be erected; a worthy site must be found for the Diplomatic Service; a cultural center for music and dramatic performances as well as for congresses is most imperative. The general scheme of our town is well suited to intellectual and material development. The system of the roads is in general right-angular, parallel and perpendicular to the coastline. The ancient part of the town was based in this way, perfectly logically for a town situated by the sea. Such a simple road system makes it easier to enlarge the heart of the city than a concentric road system, on which Amsterdam is based. I think it of great importance to make use of this opportunity.

I intentionally spread out the new governmental center, the new townhall, the new cultural center and the recreation center, Scheveningen, in order to shape an enlarged middle point for the enlarged town: a logical broadening, which will be of great value in reducing the congestion of traffic.

I have made a rough sketch of the enlarged town, based on an extensive population prognosis, which leads us to suppose that we may reckon with a maximum population of about 850,000 inhabitants. The new plan will give a more fixed form to this at present chaotic town, in this case the logical form of a rectangle: a succinct shape, which will benefit the town as well as the adjacent country. The neighborhood idea

will be the guiding principle of the development: the quarters will be separated by belts of green. A certain decentralization will be striven after: large office buildings, which will draw many workers but not many people, as for instance a new building for the Postal Direction will be erected not in the city, but in new quarters, where they must form new architectural centers. The workers will have their homes here with every opportunity for recreation in their immediate neighborhood. This spreading out of important buildings will help equalize traffic over the whole town. The right-angled road system will be continued with a circular road around the town. At Scheveningen, I am providing a finer central square, with dune-parks on either side.

A difficult problem will be to create some order in the existing chaotic town: a clearer road system, a better grouping of quarters and more opportunity for recreation. This demands a more detailed survey and this problem is to be studied thoroughly before the plans are worked out.

I hope I have given you some idea of the essential principles connected with the development of this town. Now I can pass on to the plans for the destroyed quarters, which will be erected as soon as possible.

The partial demolition by the British of the Bezuidenhout quarter creates a town planning problem of inserting a new district into an existing one, and at the same time raises a strong desire for an entirely new creation.

Insertion and *re-creation*. These two ideas generally characterize this town planning work. The re-creation is only possible within certain limits and in this respect the art of town planning is restricted accordingly. But within these limits the possibilities are to be seen in so wide a perspective, that the results obtained will have become a work of art. This is only possible by a harmonious solution of all the important factors.

What are those factors?

The situation of the destroyed quarter, so near to the station, has created the necessity to couple this problem of rebuilding to another existing problem, namely that of the railways.

In a detailed report, drawn up by the administration of the Dutch railways, in cooperation with me, proposals have been made to the Minister of Reconstruction.

The object is to get one main station and an underground railway junction for the most important residential quarters. This underground railway system, introduced for the first time in Holland, makes it possible to free the Bezuidenhout quarter from its relative isolation by creating a new main road which runs to a large square of about 90 x 220 meters. Into this square lead the two most important parallel streets. It is also directly connected with the residential quarters of Voorburg.

The east end of the row of houses on the side of the Haagsche Bosch, the forest reservation, has been shortened, to create a finer view.

The solution of the underground railway problem makes it possible to lengthen the new main road, in the southwest direction, in order to connect the rebuilding plan of the Bezuidenhout quarter with a slum clearing plan between the main station and the existing government offices. This is the right place to erect a new governmental center. The Royal Residence, The Hague, is rather eccentrically situated and it is of great importance that the many visitors, who come daily from the country to these government offices, should not have to cover long distances in the town, after a long train journey. That is why this center is planned as much in the neighborhood of the main station as in that of the existing houses of Parliament and the ministries. It is to be erected round a square of about 110 x 165 meters; it is planned to make a parking place under the whole square.

The third big square in this plan is formed by the station itself. The station is planned northwest of the new main road, to allow a wide open space between the station and the Bezuidenhoutscheweg. On this square, tramway, bus and car-traffic will have all the space required.

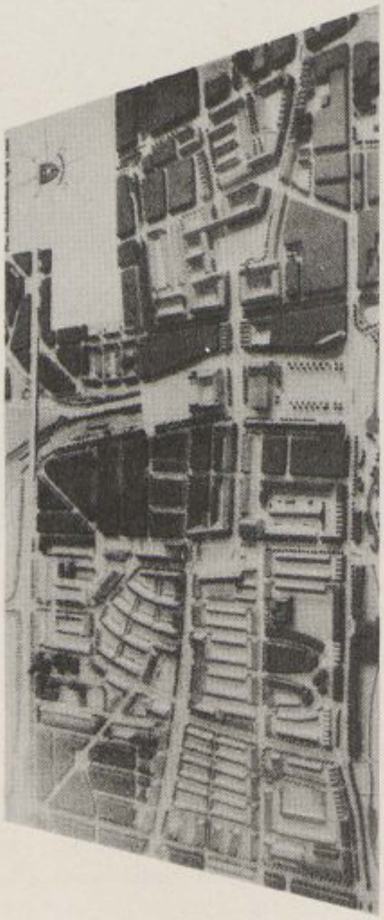
Of still greater importance is the aesthetic significance of this square, which is planned as a forecourt to the town. With the unexpected open space of the Haagsche Bosch, this creates a particularly fine entrance to the town, a pleasant entry, affording at once the impression of the free, airy and gay character of this town.

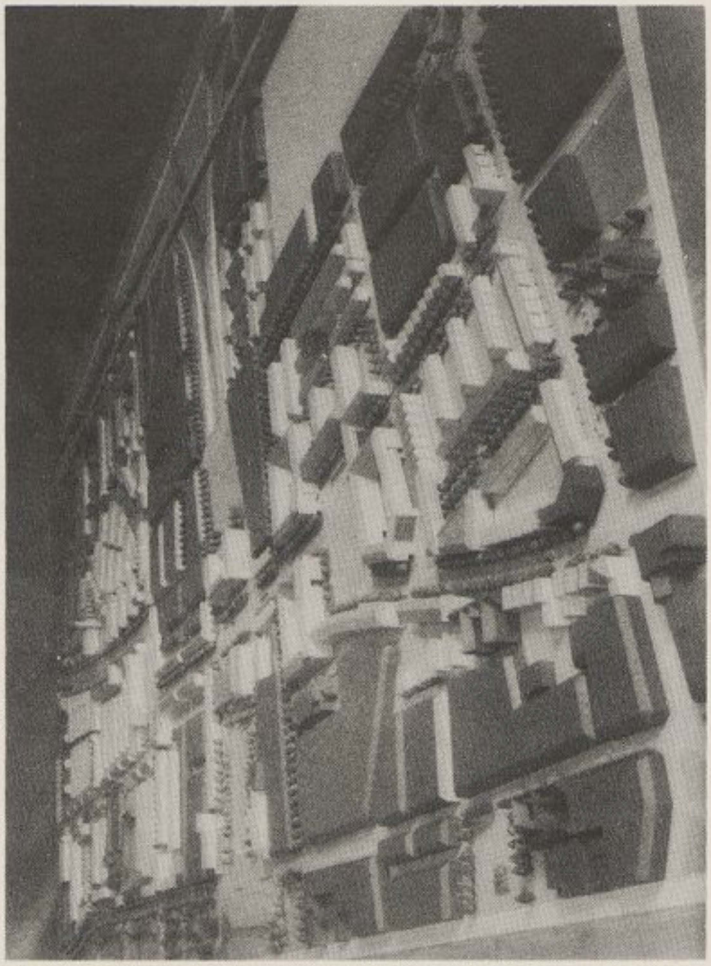
In this way the problem of the reconstruction of the Bezuidenhout quarter — as regards traffic and town structure — is seen more broadly than the strict limits of the destruction. Firstly by coupling reconstruction to the railway problem, it will now be solved in a way, which considerably increases the value of the railways for the inhabitants; secondly a new thoroughfare is planned southeast of the Bezuidenhoutscheweg, which needs a better connection with the city. The importance of this is all the greater, if you take into consideration the proposed considerable development of the town to the northeast.

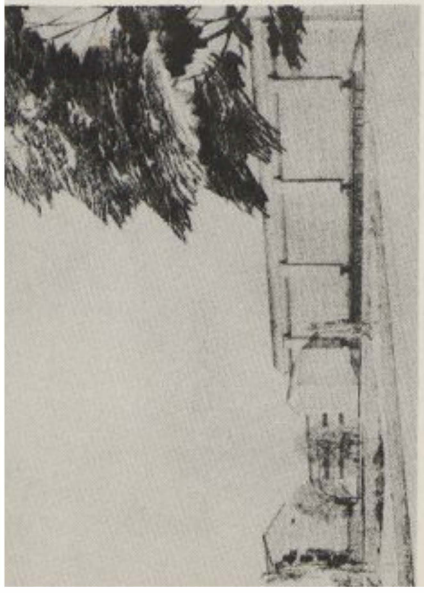
The character of the buildings which will be erected in this demolished quarter is influenced by the neighborhood of the new governmental center. I will now explain the plan of this complex of buildings.

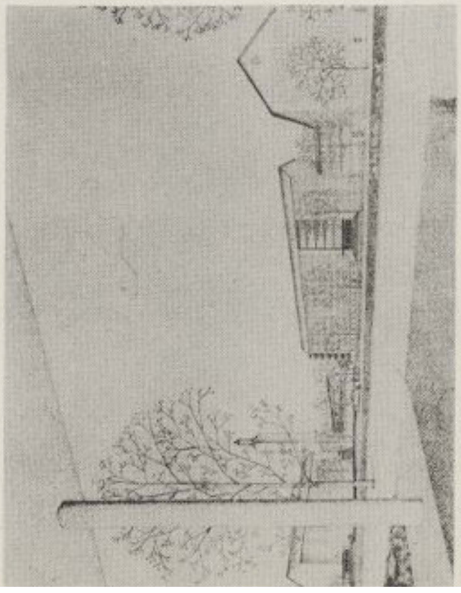
For the grandiose problem of erecting at the same time five government buildings, the only solution, it seems to me, is to plan one great com-

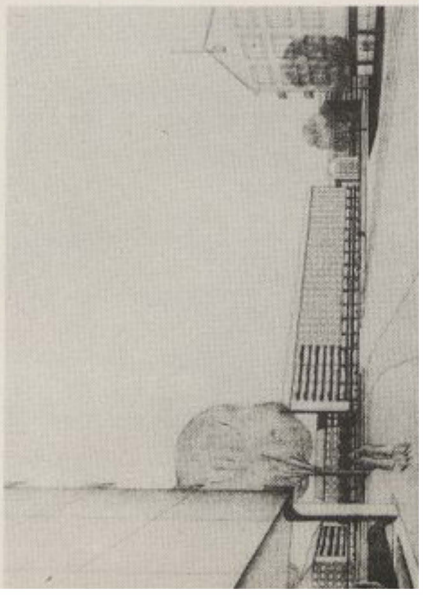
Top: *Rotterdam before the war.*
Bottom: *Rotterdam after debris clearance.*

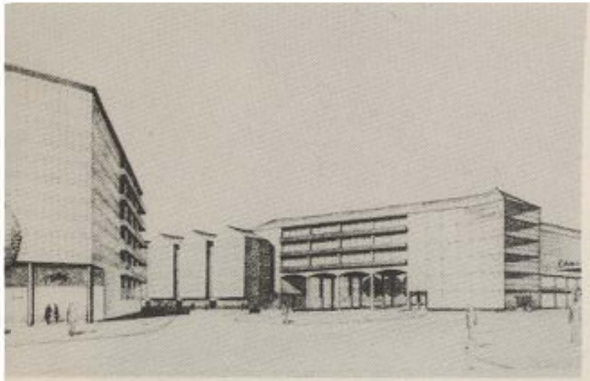


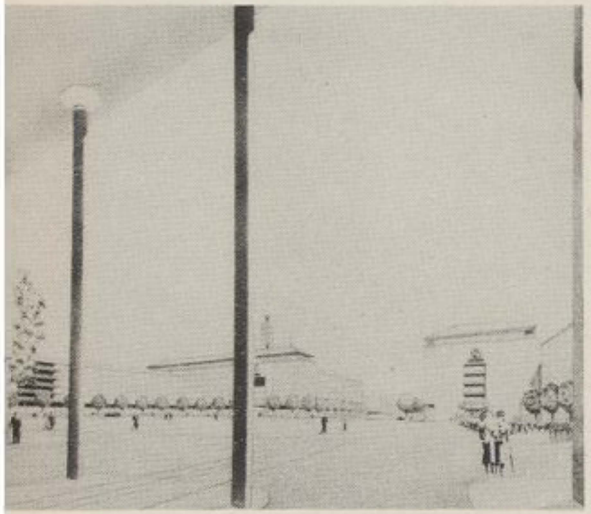


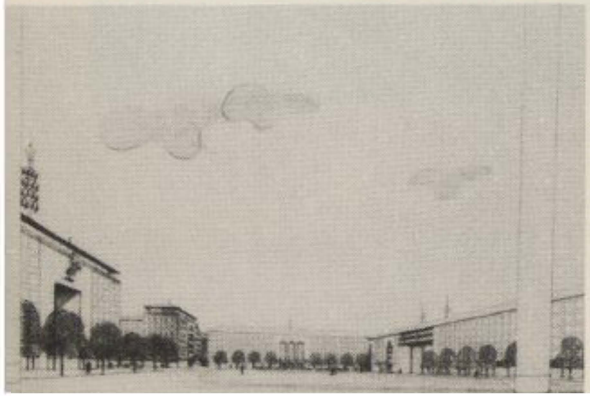




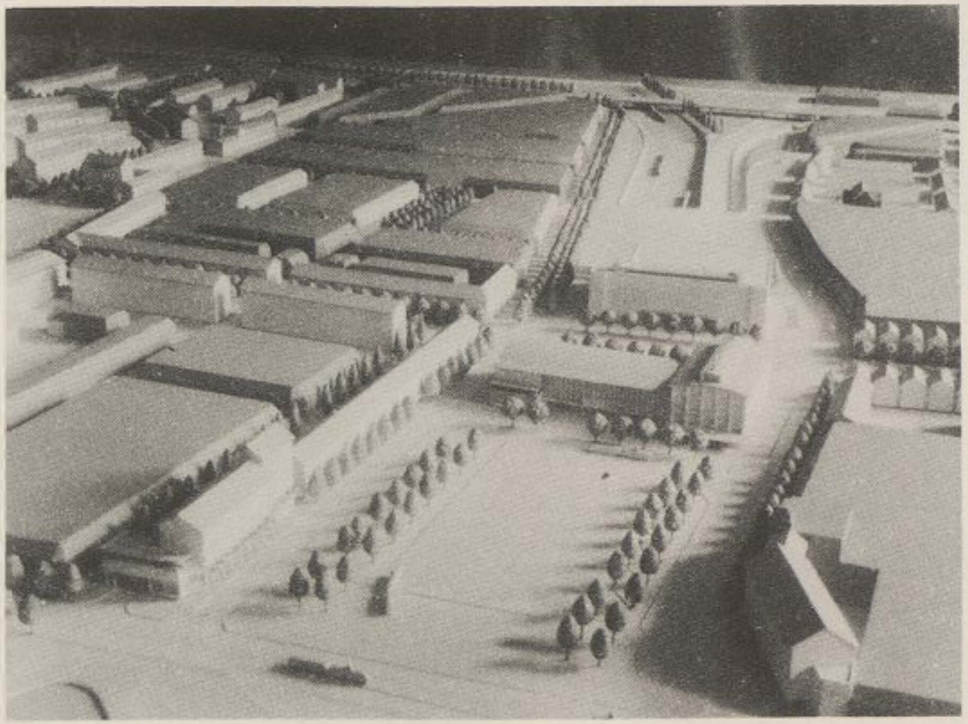


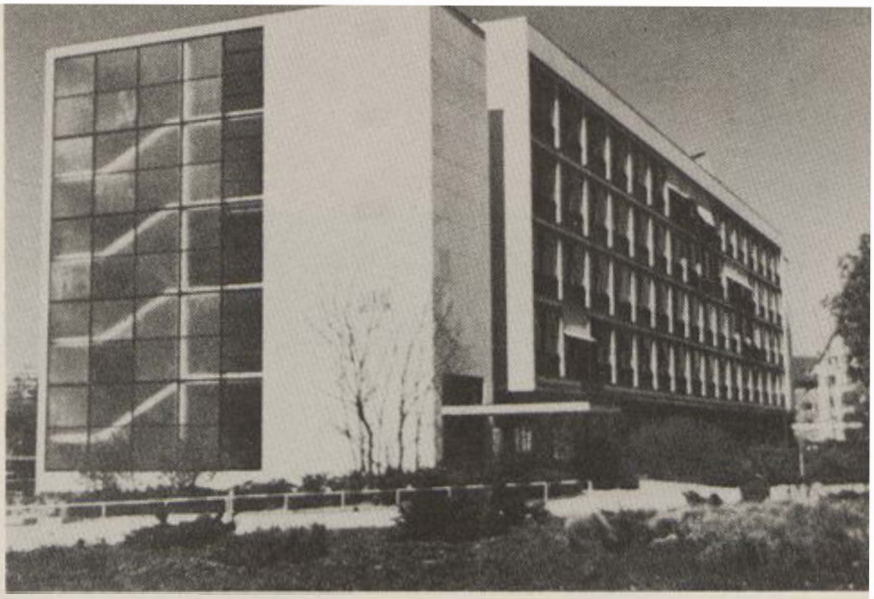


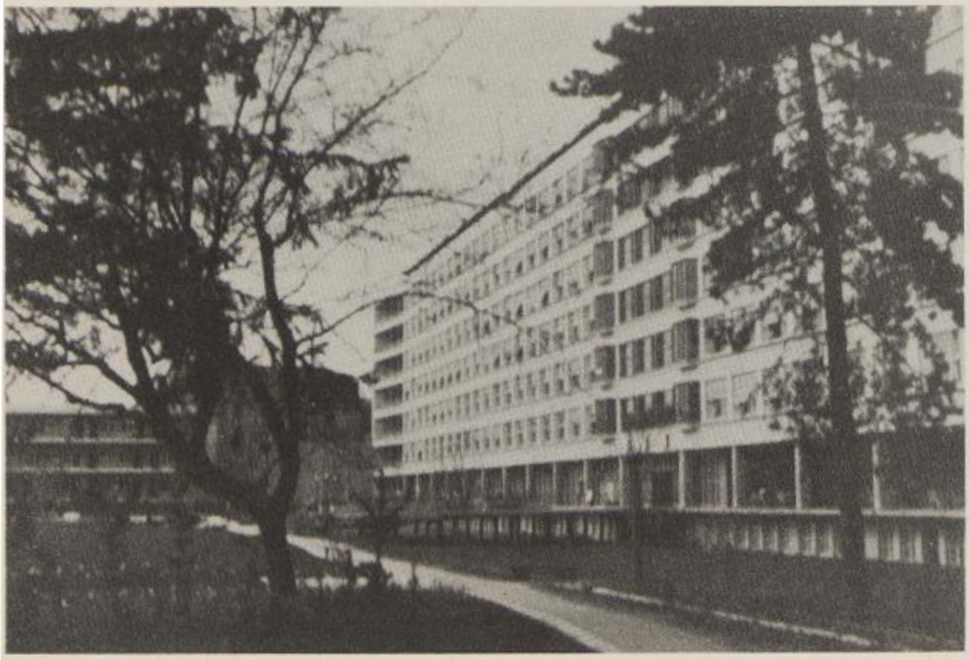




Photographs of W. Dudok's models and sketches for rebuilding The Hague, capital of the Netherlands.







Top: *New trade school, Bern, Switzerland; H. Brechbühler, Architect. (F. Porges)*
Middle: *New hospital, Basel, Switzerland; H. Baur et al, Architects. (F. Porges)*
Bottom: *Tram stop, Zurich, Switzerland. (F. Porges)*

plex of official buildings in great style. The interior of these buildings should be as little differentiated as possible and should be adopted to meet the demands of the distant future. Only some essential parts as entrances, staircases and lifts, meeting rooms, etc. have a fixed, allotted place.

I accept the repeated placing of the window space as a first principle, to express the nobility of the conception.

In this stately sphere, such dominating parts as the entrances should be enriched with splendid sculptural ornaments, to represent plastically the character of each department without doing harm to the unity of the building complex.

Stately courts are planned around the main-square. These form a worthy contrast to this square, as they will be embellished by parks and fountains. The special character of this square leads to an unusual solution: so lively an element of the town by day ought not to be a dead square by night. So I planned at the foot an arcade, in which, when the offices are closed, there will be lit up show-windows. The modest situation of the rooms behind the stately colonnade would in no way harm the dignity of this complex.

Here commercial propaganda should be made for the Dutch railways, airlines and steamship companies. In the domain of education, a book-shop, with all manner of books should be available; in the domain of art, important events such as shows, concerts, exhibitions, etc. would be announced; the overseas territories could be shown by dioramas, in a way which would bring our people nearer to these distant countries. An enlightened architectural shape is created here for a cultural contact between government and people.

At the outset, this complex of office buildings will be too large for the departments, so that for the time being superfluous space should be let to private persons.

In this way it would be possible to give the government offices — though the demands for the future cannot be seen now — a fixed and worthy architectural form, which would not harm its future development. My solution, I think, connects harmoniously with the best fragments of the already existing government buildings. In this respect it is of great importance that the dimensions of the new square should not be too large. The existing Plein (common) and Binnenhof (court) should not be overwhelmed by the site of the new projected square.

There is much more to say about the character of the buildings to be erected in this quarter. Herewith we go to the root of the whole problem of reconstruction. This is not the problem of the usual growth of a town: it is the healing of a deep wound, a healing which ought to be done as quickly as possible. This wound is only to be healed by new and great architectural remedies, for the new circumstances enforce a radical change of character.

I have reached the positive conviction, that the changed circumstances of town planning make it necessary to sacrifice the individual house to the whole; here shops and houses must be built as big complexes, as large unities.

We admit that in former periods of civilization individual dwelling houses and shops were a normal appearance, which put their stamp on the town. In those days houses were built one at a time and in each of them the desires and the formwill of the owner and the architect found their own architectural expression. The difference between the forms was bridged over by a common sense of style, which warranted a quiet unity, in spite of all those differences. It is not necessary to draw your attention to the splendid results attained at that time in our old towns. The Hague too has beautiful old parts. But the form problem of the growing town changed long ago. The individual character of the houses in the recently destroyed quarter was not worthy at all. Jerry-building prevailed not only in this district, but all over the world at this time.

The difference between these dwelling houses and shops was devoid of all character. The individuality of the house has now no logical reason for existence. Why should we insist on arbitrary outward differences, which are not an outcome of the interior, now that an entire quarter is to be systematically rebuilt as a unity?

We are convinced that the architect, for the first time in history faced with a problem of town planning in a scale as never before, must face this problem in an entirely new fashion. He must understand that the chaotic life senselessly disturbs his endeavor to attain a beneficial and reasonable ordering. To attain this, he must totally eliminate all such factors as would lead to senseless chaotic forms. He can then accept all really valuable and various exigencies of life as a form-giving principle in his town plan.

All the elements are comprised in large unities, unities and building volumes, which express clearly and at the same time in a most economic way the formwill which lives in this town plan.

The height of the buildings, that is to say the number of stories, is exactly fixed. The silhouette of the town is settled in the main.

This idea does not at all stand in the way of the differentiation in the type of the dwelling houses we are in need of. The assistance of competent architects is still wanted to find the right solution.

We must admit that the town plan, prepared

in this way, limits the freedom of the assisting architects, but is this not a logical sequence of our common purpose: to build a good and beautiful city? This beauty is not arbitrary, it is based on repetition and variety, in the right place and in right proportions. A sound town plan must express itself not in two, but in three dimensions.

Speaking of variety, this new quarter, where the repetition of the normal dwelling houses and shops, of the offices and dwelling flats, forms the foundation, strongly needs attractive variety.

To obtain this, the special building is carefully situated in the special place.

The churches, schools, public baths, cinemas, etc. to be erected in this destroyed quarter, have each found the site which will guarantee their fitting emphasis in the surroundings.

In this way a natural synthesis of the classic and the romantic character will be attained and the foundation laid for a distinct silhouette and clear soundness of the quarter. To this end the green element will contribute an important part: the courtyards in the neighborhood of the government center, the parks in which the offices and dwelling flats are planned, with their many groups of trees and borders full of color.

The color of the buildings is also of great importance. The governmental center ought to be built of a light colored material with sculptural details in gilded brass.

Last but not least the neighborhood idea asks for our attention. This part of the town must be seen as a unity, as a district which demands special technical and social provisions. The central situation of this part of the town requires that the cultural demands be partly met by the existing establishments in the city.

We planned the technical provisions in and near the bathing-establishment, and envision the whole part of the town as being centrally heated from there.

In the midst of this quarter a social center is planned in the green square along the Juliana-van-Stolberglaan.

From a provisional calculation we learn that we can expect about 33,750 people in the new area, against about 36,400 who lived in former days in the now destroyed one. This result is quite satisfactory, when you take into consideration the number of office flats, which had to be projected here.

I hope to have explained this project sufficiently and pass now to the second detailed plan.

Like that of the Bezuidenhout quarter, the plan to rebuild the residential sections, Sportlaan and Stadhouderslaan, and also the wooded area, Scheveningsche Boschjes, is a problem of *insertion*; here too exist strong motives for a thorough *re-creation*. Though the destroyed quarters had the charm of wealth and openness, they ought certainly not to be rebuilt in the old form. The fact is that the whole destroyed district lay in a part of the town without any rhythm, any suspense, any differentiation: it was only a strip in a flat monotonous town.

The rebuilding makes it possible to rouse new architectural life in this dull part of the town. We plan to take advantage of these large open spaces and to reform them into fine plantations with ornamental waters. These plantations will be bordered by new flats, higher than the surroundings. So there will arise in this part of the town a contrasting element, which will be created as a sound, ornamental unity of parks and houses.

Lengthwise there could be some indentation: the new Red Cross Hospital springs out of the building line and will be extraordinarily well situated within this ornamental plan. In the neighborhood of the Ververschingskanaal an enclosed square is planned, in which the shops which were destroyed in this quarter, will find their right replacement.

This strip of territory has not everywhere the same width. Existing plots of green are harmoniously fitted in, as Meer en Bosch, Boschjes van Pex with skating course and sporting grounds, the big square near the new lyceum-building, etc.

It is possible to create the suggestion, that there is more width than really exists, an impression in which the right way of planting would contribute an important part.

A point of paramount consideration was the joining of the park Zorgvliet to the Scheveningsche Boschjes; we don't want the new thoroughfare to cross those two splendid areas, because we want to save those open spaces as perfect recreation grounds. Besides, the ancient and magnificent old Scheveningscheweg should not have more crossings than strictly necessary.

In our plan the road crossing is restricted to the old junction near the Promenade Hotel. The new thoroughfare runs with a grandiose curve from the Hotel de Witte Brug via this junction, along the west side of Zorgvliet, of which only a small part is sacrificed.

Changing the thoroughfare trace in this way, a bigger part of the Scheveningsche Boschjes is united into one quiet park for walking.

On the north side of the thoroughfare a new arrangement of ponds is planned at the foot of a hill, about 30 meters high, which we propose to decorate with a national monument, in any case with a monument that will honor those who fell in the years 1940–1945, and is worthy of the Royal Residence.

The replanting of the Scheveningsche Boschjes leaves open spaces which give from the height a

fine view of the silhouette of the town with its many towers.

In this way advantage is taken of the destruction by enriching the west side of the town, parallel to the coast, with a splendid green area, which will offer an opportunity for a fine walk of an hour or so.

There are not many towns having such an ornamental element of green!

But we were glad to take up this opportunity of raising the value of this element in creating a cultural center in the neighborhood of the already existing Municipal Museum.

Whoever has any confidence in the future of our country and in that of our Royal Residence, must admit the necessity of this important element in town planning, which will comprise a series of cultural buildings of an extent and grouping as the existing town has never known.

This is necessary in order that this town should keep up its international position and not lose its future position as an important cultural center.

For its own intellectual life too the town needs at its disposal worthier places in which to enjoy concerts and performances and to provide room for national and international congresses.

That is why first of all a series of three buildings is planned in this cultural center: a concert hall, a congress building and a theatre. These buildings must be combined, as they are dependent on one another. Necessary rooms for foyers, meeting halls, restaurants, etc., are all very important rooms, which, in separate buildings, are usually too small to contain many people.

For this reason the three buildings are planned to be connected in front by a series of rooms, which are built above the parks between them, thus carrying the complex up to a monumental whole.

There is no reason for doubt about the success of such a large scale undertaking, for experience teaches us that enjoyment of such expressions of art increases with the opportunity offered for so doing.

In Brussels people were skeptical about the enormous creation of the Palais des Beaux Arts, but it turned out that this great complex was self-supporting from the beginning and is now even too small!

If the Hague wishes to compete in an international sense with such towns as Brussels, Geneva, Zurich, etc., the town must do so by its manner of building. This or never is the time to do so.

The designs show that we project a cultural center to be completed by a building for the people's university, as well as a postal museum, a conservatoire, a record office and further an enlargement of the Municipal Museum.

This whole cultural complex will be situated in the midst of fine parks and plantations; a situation exactly in harmony with the character of this town, where so much ornamental green and so many flowers already exist.

The question arises whether such an important group of buildings should not be situated more centrally and thus be more subservient to the intensity of greater town life in the city.

It is my decided opinion that this question must be answered in the negative.

I admit of course that the center of this town needs elements of busy liveliness and that to this intent, beside the existing Royal Theatre, the House of Arts and Sciences, etc., new entertainment buildings such as cinemas with restaurants, meeting halls, etc., must be erected on different sites.

The quarters to be built on the outskirts of the town should also get their own entertainment centers, which will give these quarters their own atmosphere.

But what we are talking about now is a cultural center of large proportions and it is not necessary, nor desirable that such a center should be in the heart of the city which, with a view to traffic is already too congested.

In any case, it is reasonable not to crowd up such new elements in a center which is already too small for a large town, but rather to spread them wider apart, making them in this way subservient to the widening of the center.

And how much is this situation of the cultural center in harmony with the worthy character of the buildings to be erected! For you must not enter this concert hall or this theatre as you would enter a restaurant or a cinema in the city: no, to enjoy the arts presented here, you must go prepared for a feast. And this idea characterizes the motive of the site chosen.

Falling back from this chain of thought to the demands of practical life, we may remark that this grouping is easy to reach by tramways from all parts of the town and that there will be plenty of parking space in the adjoining parks.

The designs also show you that we have not been afraid to give the thoroughfare, planned in this territory, a somewhat curved trace.

In the axis of an important part of the road a public building of national significance is projected, which will find here a particularly worthy situation.

The flats that will border on the plantations will be of different heights, and there must be a differentiation of types according to the expected population. In this district of country houses, one family houses and row houses, flats form a logical sequence, since this kind of house is more

and more in demand, due to the ever growing lack of domestic servants. Moreover by this method of building, more families will be able to profit from the splendid surroundings.

It is impossible to figure out exactly what the number of inhabitants will be, as only a fully worked out building plan can give the exact figures, but a provisional calculation shows us that about 10,000 people can be expected as against about 11,600 who lived in former days in this now destroyed area. This is not at all unsatisfactory when you take into consideration that there are some office flats projected here, to say nothing of the large cultural center.

All those flats are to be built in groups, with a very close relation in form between the parts of each group, for here too the rule holds that the rebuilding should not harm the formwill, expressed in the town plan, but support it.

Finally a word about the relation of town planning towards architecture, or, more personally expressed: *the relation of the town planner to the architects*.

Although I have in the aforesaid mentioned the specific character of this urbanistic problem, I feel that the form of the work here represented needs some further enlightenment. The maquettes and the drawings are so much worked out, that the layman might suppose that everything was inexorably fixed.

Now I have already explained that the task of the town planner is to express the character of his plan in all three dimensions; in town planning, and more specially in town reconstruction, the architectural form is inherent, and I consider it a loss that in our town planning work the desire of form giving is so much less manifest than in the past. This is understandable. What we daily value as beautiful town planning in the past is always the complete architectural achievement, called to life by the will to build of a municipal government, or of a Maecenas or a prince, neither weighed down by a strict survey nor by endless commissional cooperation and judgment. In our days the town planner cannot be exempted from all these expediencies, which is fitting, for in this way his work attains an importance both social and human. On one condition — for the overburdening of town planning in our days would outreach its mark, should our designs lose their spontaneity, which made the work of the past so clear, so natural and for all time. With as many complications as those which now beset us, I doubt whether a design such as, for instance, the beautiful canal plan of Amsterdam, would have been generally approved and carried out, and we may be glad that these restrictions did not then exist! Does not this indicate that we, after all, may be on the wrong track in spite of all our organized foresight and wisdom? For it is, as always, the architectural form which gives the finished town planning work its final merits. I ask you to see these maquettes and drawings as an attempt towards this end. The scale on which these are worked out, have led to a certain degree of detail, but I do not wish you to assume from this that all is definitely fixed! Anyone who might think this, has no conception of the great task, imposed on the collaborating architects within these natural limitations.

A town plan thus worked out does not intend to force a senseless "will to build" on the community; it rather intends to coordinate the existing building urge and the building power and to enable our people to benefit by the best architectural attainments in respect to planning and accomplished architecture. It is in this spirit that I hope the public will receive these plans which can only gain in value by the sympathetic understanding and constructive criticism of the citizens.

One does not set up an object to miss attaining it.

And I would never have drafted these maquettes and drawings in this form had I not assumed that they were a clear indication of the spatial development for these two sections of the town: a form, in harmony with its utilitarian and spiritual contents and at the same time giving full expression to the town character of The Hague. But this does not mean that I intend to make the claims of the composition of the plans so stringent that the cooperating architects should have no breathing space left to solve their spatial problems in a sound way.

There must be confidence and good will on both sides.

The town builder must have the faith that his co-workers take up their task with the full intention of adapting themselves to the desired form, which has been clearly expressed in his town plan and which over-arches all the details. The architects on the other hand may expect that this over-arching does not prevent them from solving their building task in such fashion that they can undertake the aesthetic responsibility for it, and this with the greater confidence because they may know that they are cooperating in a well considered whole, which they can enrich with their own personalities. In this way it is possible to cooperate in serving architecture in its most essential character, viz. as the art of space.

If our democratic times should fail to produce this mental attitude in our architects, this governing power in our authorities and this confidence in our people, we shall fall short of the task that lies before us and the only thing which will remain after centuries of our society will be a witness against us.

RECONSTRUCTION: BELGIUM

Adolphe Puissant

RECONSTRUCTION as it confronts us today in Belgium is quite different from that problem as it existed after the first World War, but previous solutions are still fresh in the minds of the public and the government and render present-day solutions more difficult.

After the war of 1914–1918 destruction was very localized. Aside from a few villages in the Ardennes and some towns in the interior like Louvain and Dinant, the stricken area was confined to the zone of combat along the River Yser. In that area, destruction was complete: some villages disappeared entirely and the beautiful medieval town of Ypres was nearly annihilated. But the natural resources of the country were not affected. Basic industries were able to resume production immediately and the building industries — which were both numerous and prosperous — were anxious to produce. Except for wood (furnished by the Scandinavian countries), we had all the basic raw materials and factory space necessary for construction activity: limestone and sand for cement, bricks, tiles, slate, terra-cotta, sandstone, lead, zinc, and so on. We even exported a good portion of these products. We had a fine, skilled, hard-working and relatively cheap labor force to utilize these materials. In addition, we had the optimism derived from victory and the certainty that reparations would be paid by Germany.

The time devoted to preparatory studies was short. A series of temporary barracks was produced to shelter the homeless returning to the country. Less than a year after the end of the war tremendous activity occurred throughout the devastated area where durable construction was being undertaken.

At the end of three years the greater part of the destruction had been repaired. This exceptional speed was of benefit in itself: it launched the whole population on a back-to-work program and helped prepare the people to participate in all national activities.

However, the balance-sheet was not entirely as satisfactory as might have been imagined. In the first place, Germany paid nothing, or very little, in reparations. One hundred percent compensation was paid by the Belgian government to those suffering war damage. Public finances were hard hit for a long time.

Although the homeless war-victims were well cared for individually, it had been hoped that by overall coordination, the planning of cities and towns would provide the opportunity for improving the general conditions of urban living. In this instance, also, results were not favorable: the absence of any city planning law, the desire of every individual to lay out his plot and re-establish his house on the very same spot as before, and

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the speed of reconstruction, all these meant that, except for a few minor changes, the cities were rebuilt on the former pattern.

As usually occurs, private interests prevailed over the public good, and the opportunity for much good city planning was lost. Nevertheless, it must be admitted that regional characteristics were often respected in this reconstruction; the spirit of the past found its reflection in the new structures — a fact which has not satisfied some modernists who have criticized such an "archeological" approach.

Finally, the speed of the whole operation entailed various difficulties. A rush to the devastated areas took place. Architects, speculators, industrialists were attracted and many small-minded and incompetent men were given jobs. Designs, materials, and executions were not always excellent and business interests often took precedence over professional pride.

Reconstruction after World War II presented quite different problems. Primarily this was the result of the extent and wide dispersion of the stricken areas.

Old communities have been deeply affected: Tournai, Nivelles, towns, villages and suburbs of the big cities have been razed, apartment blocks have been hit by V-1's and V-2's, especially at Antwerp and Liège, and, finally, von Rundstedt's offensive demolished the Ardennes.

Work completed by the Germans during the occupation exhausted the reserves of construction materials and of coal. However, it is useless to dwell on this lack of all materiél, characteristic of the whole of postwar Europe.

The most urgent projects involved the reestablishment of transportation and of the various institutions vital to the life of the nation. The big problem was whether it was possible and advisable to build temporary housing for the displaced population first, and have time to rehabilitate the factories, to accumulate materials, to draw up overall plans, to organize ways of financing and means of physically reconstructing all the destroyed structures.

Two facts became apparent. First, that temporary buildings have a tendency to become permanent. After World War I, as soon as all the population had been "housed", that is to say, once it had found shelter, reconstruction was considered accomplished and many temporary structures continued to house families. This situation was perpetuated during the inter-war years and still exists now, to the disgrace of some human settlements.

Secondly, temporary structures proved to be exceedingly expensive; at little additional cost and effort permanent buildings could have been constructed. But the situation was such that in many instances it was impossible to wait; it was necessary to utilize temporary structures which could be speedily built of wood or concrete blocks.

Every effort was made to limit the amount of this housing and it was decided to build not at the periphery of urban areas but in the heart of the cities. This meant that existing public utilities (water mains, gas, electricity, and sewerage) could be used. Also, these buildings would be considered intolerable as soon as the final reconstruction of the city were accomplished.

Coal has to be supplied to factories producing construction materials. Since coal production has fallen far below minimum needs, individuals have been asked to restrict their use of this fuel on behalf of the industries. Also, since the supply of miners was inadequate, foreign miners have been invited to work in Belgium and they have increased the number of those requiring homes.

This new need brought temporary housing again to the fore and it was undertaken by the coal-mining industry itself. The need for a foreign labor force is probably not temporary; in order to retain it something better than barracks must be offered to these families. Hence the urgent need for miners' housing. The government decided to build rapidly some permanent dwellings close to the mines for both Belgian and foreign miners.

Meanwhile, most of the dispossessed not having the capital necessary for reconstructing their destroyed homes awaited the government's decisions on the amount of compensation to be paid for war damage, the amount and spacing of subsidies, the supply of materials for construction and the actual possibilities of reconstruction. The government has finally decided to compensate in full all war damage sustained by a category of people classed as "economically weak" and to compensate in part damage sustained by those economically more secure. It is likewise understood that material assistance will be given the dispossessed by setting up collective work projects and cooperative societies.

We are now on the threshold of the real period of reconstruction. This does not mean that nothing has been done since the liberation. The ministries of Public Works and of Railroads have continued to repair the railways and other means of communication. Once again they are undertaking large-scale projects; their present activity is almost up to the prewar level. Other agencies are likewise undertaking the social and economic rehabilitation of the country.

Private individuals and industrialists are everywhere doing a little building, either reconstructing or building anew, but such activity is limited to a relatively rich section of the population. The poorer still wait. The cost of living and

salaries are about three times their prewar level, but building costs have risen five times over their prewar values. A worker's row house costing 50,000 francs prewar, now costs at least 250,000 francs.

Reserves of materials are being accumulated, but labor is scarce and expensive. The problem of price reduction through prefabrication of buildings or parts of them is constantly being studied and discussed but, here as elsewhere, no definite conclusions have been reached. Nonetheless, work is being done and the hope exists that bit-by-bit something on the order of prefabrication will be found to facilitate construction and financing and to better the conditions of the people. For the present, traditional materials and procedures are still the mainstay of building — reinforced concrete now being considered a traditional medium.

City planning, legally instituted in Belgium since the war, must play a major part in reconstruction. It seems apparent that in view of the destruction of old buildings and old sections of towns and in view of the space thus created in old centers, the necessities of circulation and health, the modern necessities of today's and the future's living, must find their scope.

It seems that in place of these fortuituously created open spaces it is possible and easy to build not merely anew, but something really new — to apply the modern theories of city planning.

Unfortunately, ideals must be whittled down. The great, beautiful projects encounter a thousand difficulties. Now, as before, private interests are stronger than public ones. The demographic configuration of Belgium, the strong communal autonomy and the basically individualistic spirit of the people constitute almost insurmountable obstacles to planning. Belgium has a high population density (457 inhabitants per square kilometer of developed land, compared to 121 in France). It is also a country where the land in both city and country is divided among many small holdings, a country covered with a close network of waterways, roads, and railways, an old country in fact, where, at every turn, vestiges of the past — historic monuments — are found and have to be respected.

There is and there will be an improvement over previous conditions, and comparison with reconstruction after the war of 1914–1918 will be favorable, but the struggle is bitter and victories are few. One must pacify, temporize, agree and in general be like fire: ready to recede, only to advance later.

To correct all of the shortcomings of the tremendously rapid and disorderly growth which has taken place in cities since the second half of the nineteenth century, one would have to cut through the cities' living flesh. This operation requires certainty and assurance on one side, and health and vigor sufficient to undergo the operation on the other. One must ask if this kind of planning operation can be prescribed for such old, impoverished and moribund bodies as exist in the cities of our war-devastated areas.

Constantly we are working for the best. The future will judge us.

RECONSTRUCTION: GREAT BRITAIN

Jaqueline Tyrwhitt

THIS will be a very personal report on planning in Britain at the present time, probably tinged too warmly with my own prejudices, for it is a difficult period for British planners to bear with equanimity and we may perhaps be pardoned a little if we become bitter. Here, at long last, we have within our grasp the means to plan, in the shape of the 1947 Town and Country Planning Act, and it turns out to be but a mirage — an image of what can be — one day, but not now, not for a long time yet. And yet you across the Atlantic, with the economic means but lacking the law, must, in your way, feel as frustrated as we do. Are you also growing bitterly critical of glossily printed, paper planning schemes? Not that the superb production has not its value. The County of London Plan and the Greater London Plan have probably done more to assist town and country planning than anything else of recent years, for the possibilities and responsibilities of the 1947 Act are still scarcely comprehended.

Also the Greater London Plan is no mere paper pattern. It is being put daily into force. Several of the New Towns it recommended have been conceived and are slowly passing through their tedious but necessary period of gestation. It is true there may be a miscarriage or so, and some of the infants may prove puny, but undoubtedly some will live.

The plan for Stevenage, the type plan, the academically perfect example, is included in the illustrations with all its cliches patent. The industrial area is completely segregated from the harmoniously grouped neighbourhood units, separated from one another by parkways and playing fields. (Dull, perhaps to the jaded planner's palate, but wildly daring to the civil servant.) The plan may have over-simplified the application of theory to practice but there is little doubt that the architectural expression — if left in the hands that conceived the plan — will bring it vividly to life. It is a plan that is capable of realization.

Also there is the plan of Hemel Hempstead, another of the New Towns to be built near London — too near London. Here we have an interesting architectural treatment of a very difficult site. It is a bright idea, and makes a pretty plan, but it does not make good sense on the ground. Again, the designer of the plan has allowed current theories of planning to blind him to the actualities of the site.

We are pre-occupied with Ring Roads, with Neighbourhood Units, with Industrial Areas, Green Belts and a lot of other planning jargon that is useful both as teaching material for the planning student and to interest and delude the

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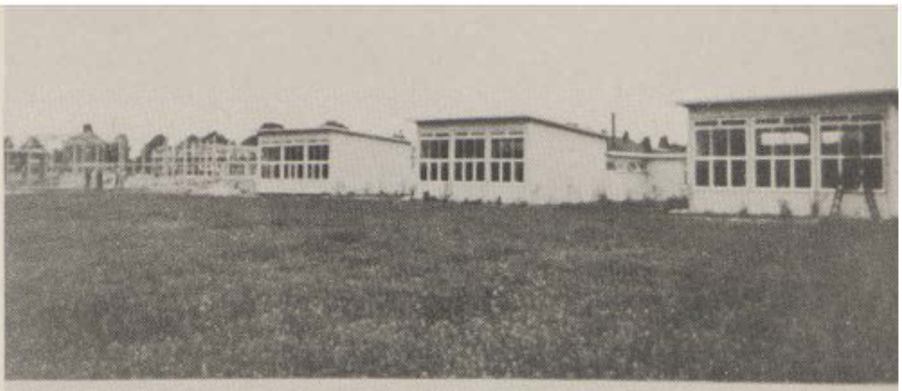
Top, upper: *Modern school in Hertford, England; Schools' Group Hertford. County Council Architects' Office, Architects. (F. Porges)*

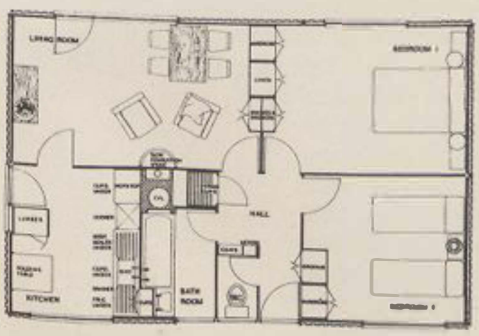
Top, middle: *Temporary steel houses under construction, Plymouth, England. (F. Porges)*

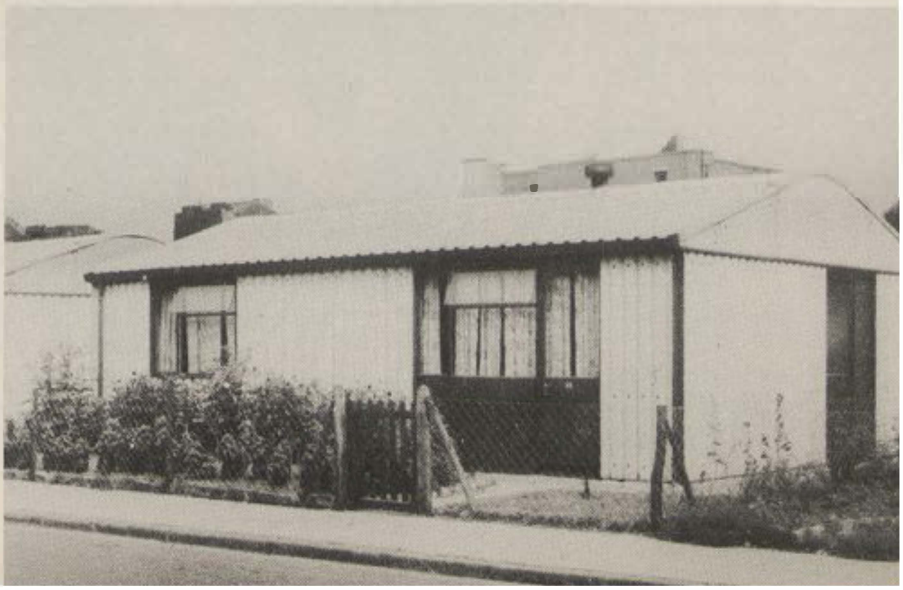
Top, lower: *Prefab development, Harwell, England, atomic energy center; Bristol Aeroplane Company. (F. Porges)*

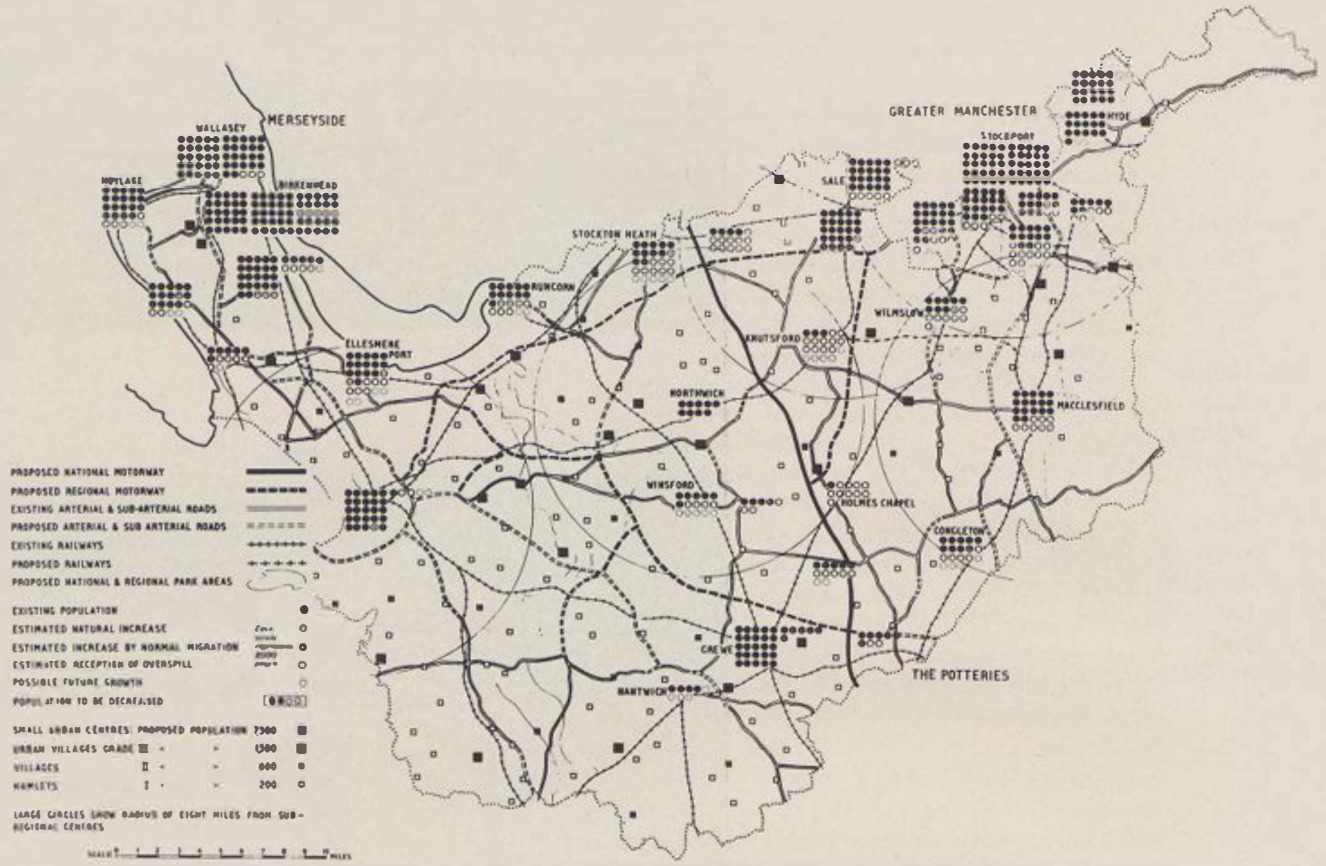
Bottom, right: *Temporary house type, ARCON, "Mark V", Great Britain.*

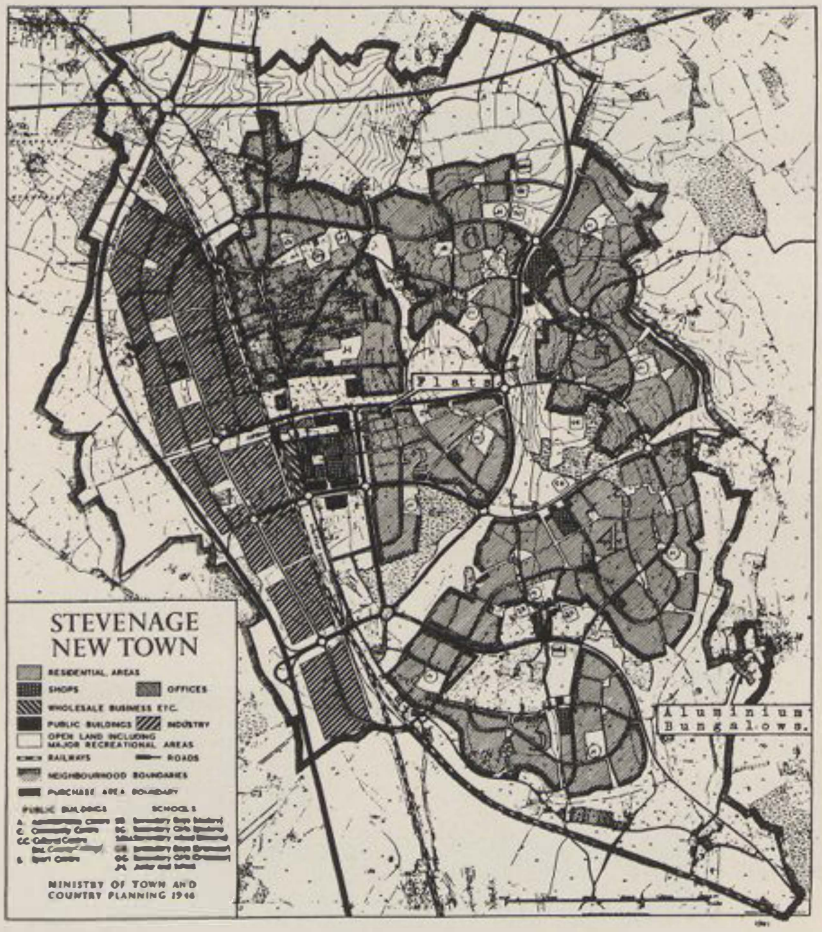
Bottom, left: *Plan of "Mark V".*











Top: *Plan for Cheshire County, England.*
Bottom: *Plan for Stevenage, proposed New Town, England.*

ordinary public: it should not be allowed to cloud the intellect of the mature planner.

Everything becomes too easy, so easy that perhaps it is as well that economic conditions will entirely prevent the Abercrombie stamp being given concrete expression in every other town up and down the country — Plymouth, Bath, Bournemouth, Hull, Edinburgh and a host of others display all the familiar features, sometimes with agreeable diversifications caused by some unusually obstinate local topography.

Such criticism is of little value, for how can new plans of real validity and moment be made unless some can be carried through? A planner is no different from any other form of artist. He can only develop through creation, creation in his own four dimensional medium with the raw materials of men and trade and bricks and trees and the sequence of the seasons, not on paper pinned on a board.

Until some of the present plans stand up, new plans will not be seen.

It is not a failure of imagination only; it is the result of working without urgency and therefore without that inner sympathy and humility of approach to the site. We are all behaving as irresponsible students and achieving bright but shallow schemes.

Even the survey-mongers, of which I am one, produce nothing better. Max Lock's plan for Middlesbrough is still true to type although he had assembled a formidable array of material from which it might have been expected that a plan that was just itself, Middlesbrough *in excelsis*, might have arisen.

This is not to say the work is not good. On the whole it is better than most I have seen from elsewhere — but it's not good enough.

Our real planning is still to emerge, possibly in the counties as a result of the 1947 Act. This, for the first time, puts the resonsibility for planning squarely on the shoulders of the county councils, relatively wealthy authorities who have to consider, equally, the claims of town and country. Several councils may combine and form a Joint Planning Board.

Few have yet realised what this means but, under the Act, each must produce, within three years (and revise every five years), a plan for its area (backed by adequate survey material) which is to indicate:

(1) The land to be occupied by towns; that is, the existing towns, including their proposed extensions and any proposed new towns. The County Plan will not show the planning of the towns, as that will be done on a separate plan to be prepared for each town.

(2) Which towns or villages are to be selected as major rural centers, e.g., those where the secondary schools and the shops for weekly purchases are to be located.

(3) Which villages or hamlets are to be selected as minor rural centers, e.g., those where the primary schools and the village halls are to be located.

(4) The trunk roads as it is intended they should be eventually, including any expressways.

(5) Roads linking towns and major rural centers to the trunk road system and to each other.

(6) Roads linking minor rural centers to the road framework outlined above.

(7) The railway system, including any proposed alterations.

(8) The inland waterways of traffic importance, including any proposed alterations.

(9) Any major schemes for holiday camps or for areas into which camping is to be directed.

(10) Any major schemes for surface mineral workings.

(11) Any major schemes for the surface disposal of waste.

(12) Any proposals for airports, including those to be retained.

(13) Any major proposals by service or other government departments, statutory undertakers, or corporations sponsored by government; and any projects of equivalent importance.

(14) Any proposals for national parks or for the preservation of areas of special scenic or ecological interest.

This work will require a very different staff from that usually considered adequate to deal with the protective planning of the 1932 Act. The following is a well-considered list of the 13-member technical staff required for Cambridgeshire, one of the smaller counties of England. The job qualifications give preference to those with planning experience. The salaries indicated below are exclusive of the cost of living bonus which all receive.

(a) *Two Planning Officers*, Grade VIII (Salary £625 to £700): one concerned with the physical plans and their programming; the other with day-to-day development control and administration.

(b) *Survey and Research Officer*, Grade VII (Salary £575 to £650).

(c) *Estates Officer*, Grade VII (Salary £575 to £650): responsible for the estates aspects of planning technique, in-

cluding designation, valuation, acquisition and disposal of land under the Town and Country Planning Acts.

(d) *Chief Administrative Clerk*, Grade VII (Salary £575 to £650): general administration of the Planning Department and preparation of reports.

(e) *Landscape Architect*, Grade VI (Salary £535 to £600).

(f) *Planning Assistant with Knowledge of Public Relations and Educational Work in Planning*, Grade VI (Salary £535 to £600): primarily responsible for organizing the public relations aspect of the department and developing the more detailed aspects of citizen planning education.

(g) *Model Maker*, Grade IV (Salary £420 to £465): responsible for preparing models required by the department and, in particular, large scale models of the more important urban centers; also preparation of exhibition material.

(h) *Three Planning Assistants*, Grade VI (Salary £535 to £600), Grade V (£460 to £510) and Grade IV (£420 to £465): attached to the four main divisions of the department, namely, Plans, Development Control, Survey and Research, and Estates.

(i) *Two Map Draughtsmen*, Grade II (Salary £315 to £360) and Grade I (Salary £255 to £300): although primarily concerned with the Drawing Office, may do field work and be attached to particular divisions of the department.

The organization of the department will call for a close working arrangement between the divisions, and candidates should possess the aptitude to work as members of a team. It is anticipated that there will be opportunities in the assistant grades for interchange between the main divisions of the department and thereby the acquisition of a broad general experience.

A sketch version of the kind of plan that may result appears in the illustrations. This is the advisory plan for Cheshire that was completed before the 1947 Act became law, but it was drawn up much in the spirit of the Act.

Here is the first field of the planner, the integration of an area. As a result of such work as this, which involves wider and more searching considerations than mere urban patterning, designs that are more vital and less arid for new towns may arise.

These county plans also, luckily for us, do not necessitate immediate detailed construction. The plans are achieved by the continuous guidance of current development and thus they require both courageous imagination (for who can foresee tomorrow) and a gentle and human understanding coupled with a tenacity of purpose that must never degenerate into obstinacy, for each county planner is subject to every blast of democratic criticism.

For the next few years, the planners of Britain will have to retire to the land, but perhaps, after spending the immediate years of financial stringency in patiently cultivating our garden, we may again have something worthwhile to put forward on imaginatively constructive planning.

RECONSTRUCTION: USSR

Hans Blumenfeld

THE problems of reconstruction in the Soviet Union differ from those in other nations in three principal ways:

1. The destruction resulting from the war was greater than in any other country.
2. Reconstruction did not await the end of hostilities, but was undertaken even at the time of the most intense fighting.
3. Postwar planning was not something started *ad hoc*, but was a resumption — with modifications based on war-time changes — of the previously established planned development of the productive forces of the USSR.

The extent of destruction is clearly exemplified in the field of housing. About one and a half million urban dwellings and three million farm houses were destroyed, leaving homeless 25 million people, twice the combined populations of Sweden, Denmark and Norway.

The German invasion made it necessary to evacuate a substantial part of the equipment of the armaments, chemical and machine-building industries eastward to Siberia, beyond the range of destruction. Here new factories and new communities had to be built to house the equipment and the families of the workers who operated it. In addition, mines and oil wells had to be dug, blast furnaces constructed, and so forth, to replace those installations which could not be removed. Fifteen years ago a sparsely populated agricultural region, the Soviet East became a great industrial base contributing to military successes in wartime and to the rebuilding of the national economy with the coming of the peace.

While the war still was in progress, as areas were liberated from German occupation, urgent measures were taken to restore their economic and cultural life. First, with army aid, roads and railroad lines were rebuilt, water and power provided, and bakeries opened to save the population from starvation. Civilian reconstruction started with factories, schools, hospitals and health centers. Prefabricated barracks for 300 persons, which could be assembled in four to six hours, served as primary emergency shelters. The repair of homes was commenced immediately, and a network of factories for building materials and prefabricated units was established. As it obviously was impossible to rehouse everyone decently within a short period, the Soviets concentrated on making life bearable by supplying reasonably adequate community facilities, including dining halls, grocery stores, laundries, theaters, clubs, libraries and kindergartens.

The planned reconstruction of the USSR is in a sense merely a continuation of planning commenced long before the war. The first three Five

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Year Plans (1927–1942) aimed to provide a higher standard of living for the Soviet peoples by developing the nation's economic potential. This long and stubborn uphill fight was set back about ten years by the war. However, machinery of a fourth Five Year Plan has been set in motion to compensate for this loss by accelerating production through a more scientific distribution of the labor force and an increase in the output per worker.

The plan calls for an extraordinarily rapid expansion of the means of production as the basis for growth of both consumer and defense industries and a slower, though substantial increase in the supply of consumer's goods. Industrial enterprises are to be distributed more evenly over the nation, and to be moved closer to both raw materials sources and markets, thus creating relatively self-supporting, economically balanced regions.

Soviet industrial planning is translated into action by a pyramidal organization ranging from the ministries (formerly called commissariats) responsible for major production fields, boards in charge of specific industries, and trusts supervising groups of enterprises, down to individual factories and shops, and brigades, or teams of workers, within the plants.

The state controls all major transportation, communications, mining and heavy industry, but a considerable part of light industry is run by local governmental units and by producers cooperatives. In the field of agriculture, the roles of the state and the cooperatives is reversed; nationally owned farms account for less than ten percent of the total production. Collective farms (*kolkhozes*), centered around villages, produce most of the country's food supply and have become the basic element in rural planning.

Different as the economic system of the Soviet Union is from that of the United States, the problems each nation faces in the fields of construction, housing and city planning are strikingly similar in many instances.

The plan for raising the material standard of living requires a vast building program. The housing problem has assumed particularly staggering proportions which result from the cumulative effect of four factors: a totally inadequate existing supply of dwellings, an unprecedented increase in urban population, absorption of building materials and workers into indispensable industrial construction, and the destruction of millions of houses by the invaders.

The Russian building industry was even more technically backward than that of western countries. It depended mainly on the seasonal labor of peasants. In 1935, however, the government initiated a carefully considered program aimed at the creation of a modern building industry. Commissariats (now ministries) for building materials and for the building industry were established in 1938 and 1939, respectively. To these have been added ministries for building machinery and for construction of fuel and military installations. Ministries for municipal economy and for housing and community building are under the jurisdiction of the constituent republics. They are, however, coordinated by a National Committee on Architectural Affairs which is directly responsible to the Cabinet; a similar committee is in charge of *kolkhoz* and village building.

This multiplicity of organizations — to which must be added others created by many ministries for their own building activities — seems to presage considerable overlapping and friction. But this danger may be overcome by the coordinating effect of the Five Year Plan and by the all-pervading influence of the Communist Party, which generally acts as the lubricating oil as well as the sparkplug of the entire Soviet apparatus.

In addition to setting space and structural standards for all industrial construction, the Ministry of Building Industry has set up trusts, each with its own plant and permanent labor force. The Ministry has remarkable achievements to its credit. During the war it built blast furnaces in seven months, a large Diesel factory in ten months. Construction went on at temperatures 50° and 70° below zero; concrete was poured with the aid of steam and electric heat. Considerable ingenuity was shown in using local materials, notably slag and gypsum. In Central Asia, where neither wood nor steel were available, many war factories were roofed over with thin shell brick vaults spanning 66 feet. A theatre in Tashkent was built using the same technique. In the destroyed cities, laboratory tests were made of the surviving materials, and many were used in rebuilding. Finely ground brick rubble was widely used as mortar.

Lack of building materials continues to be a most serious bottleneck. The Soviet Union has put its ace trouble shooter, L. M. Kaganovich, in charge of the Ministry of Building Industry. The current Five Year Plan provides for doubling the output of cement and of glass and for mass production of many materials previously not widely used. These include ceramic tile, mineral wool, fiber slabs and other insulating materials, as well as wood, metal, and asbo-cement building details and new types of sanitary equipment, hardware, etc. The production of heavy broad-flanged double-T beams is being increased greatly; pre-stressed steel for reinforcing concrete is being used more widely.

Shortage of building machinery is even more

serious than the lack of building materials. It is reported that in the summer of 1946 there was not a single steamshovel or bulldozer in Minsk, the destroyed capital of Byelorussia. Efforts are being concentrated primarily on mechanization of excavating and concrete pouring. Considerable research and experimental work is being done by the Committee on Architectural Affairs and by several ministries as well as by the Academy of Science.

The scope of the activities of the Committee on Architectural Affairs may be seen from the following list of its main departments:

1. Planning and building of cities and settlements.
2. Housing.
3. Community buildings.
4. Industrial design.
5. Construction technique.
6. Architectural building control.
7. Preservation of monuments.
8. Educational institutions.
9. Organization of architectural projects.
10. Specifications and estimates.
11. Scientific-technical information and inventions.

Hand in hand with the development of building materials and building techniques goes the training of about half a million new workers and technicians. Their annual wage is to rise more sharply than that of other workers, 67 percent instead of 48 percent, and the productivity of labor is scheduled to increase 40 percent, resulting in a 12 percent reduction of gross building costs.

Will these efforts be sufficient to solve the housing problem? How long will it take?

For the first time, the Soviets have dared to outline a program commensurate with the magnitude of the task. They intend to build one billion square meters of floor space, the equivalent of 25 million dwelling units[1] during the next fifteen to twenty years. This will roughly double the present supply.

During the next five years achievements will be on a modest scale, but considerable progress already has been made. During the war, from 1941 to 1945, about one million dwelling units were built, of which 400,000, evenly divided between apartments and single family houses, were in cities. In the liberated areas, housing space for four million persons had been built or restored by the spring of 1946. Dneprostroi for instance, the enterprise rebuilding the Dnepr Dam, had built for its workers half a million cubic meters of housing, mainly in four story apartment houses, together with two clubs, two libraries, and four movie theatres. In the countryside, rebuilding has been more rapid; in Byelorussia alone, in the course of two years, one and a half million villagers have been rehoused in 235,000 houses.

The end of the war speeded up building activities. Three days after V-E day, the provincial government of Magnitogorsk decided to increase its program by 1700 units of public housing and 700 private houses. For the country as a whole, housing construction doubled in 1946 as compared with 1945, while repairs increased by 50 percent. In the liberated areas, the first step is the replacement of temporary shelter in dugouts, hutments or small movable houses, by emergency housing, at reduced standards. But as soon as possible, permanent housing is provided in new or restored buildings. Experience has shown that restoration costs as much as 40 percent of the original construction cost, even where walls and roofs are intact (21 percent for floors and ceilings, 14 percent for plastering, 7 percent for doors and windows).

The fourth Five Year Plan lays far more stress on housing than any previous plan, almost trebling the sum provided for housing in the third Five Year Plan. Housing will absorb 14.5 percent of all investments. This expenditure will result in the building of the equivalent of six million dwelling units (2,300,000 urban and 3,400,000 rural) in addition to dormitories for half a million persons. This is considerably more than we in this country have built in any five year period, though slightly less than the number "programmed" by our National Housing Agency. However, the need in the Soviet Union is certainly vastly greater than in the U.S., despite the current housing shortage. More than half the new houses are required to replace those destroyed during the war, and the balance will be hardly sufficient to keep up with the growth of the population.

In addition to traditional ways of building, new methods of prefabrication are increasingly being used by several ministries and factories have been established in all parts of the country. Eighteen plants started operations in 1946 alone, and by 1950 output is to be increased to 100,000 dwellings annually. So far, prefabrication has been limited to the manufacture of wooden panels for walls, roofs and ceilings, but prefabrication of entire sections and especially of the mechanical core is planned. However, complete prefabricated houses are not contemplated, though a small movable house has been developed.

Of the urban houses, almost 15 percent are to

[1] A typical 4½ room unit in our public housing projects contains slightly less than 40 square meters of "housing space" as defined in Soviet statistics. As measurements in terms of "housing space" are unfamiliar to the American reader, they have been translated into dwelling units on the basis of 40 square meters per dwelling unit.

be built by the owners with the assistance of public and trade union organizations. Small houses built by the state will be sold to occupants on a ten year credit basis. In the devastated areas, the large houses are being rebuilt by government agencies, but smaller houses, up to 1600 square feet, are rebuilt by tenants who are granted long-term leases and reduction of rent and taxes as well as the right to sublet at controlled rents.

In the countryside, practically all houses will be built either by individuals with the aid of the collective farm organization, or by the farm for the individual, with payments spread over five years. The collective farmers will decide on the allocation of these houses, with priorities given to veterans and to war widows, and rebates will be granted in case of need. Traditional house-building techniques are used in rural areas. Frequently lack of nails and roofing materials forces recourse to the thatched roof in a somewhat improved fire-resistant clay and straw version.

City dwellers are also encouraged in every way to build for themselves. A popular pamphlet, "How To Build Your Own House," contains not only the usual information on traditional building methods, but also on the making of gypsum blocks, earth blocks, and brick vaults, on the utilization of brick rubble, and on simple material tests.

Contrasting with prewar years, the trend now is toward one and two story houses. This is in keeping with the traditional spacious character of Russian cities. Before the Revolution, nine-tenths of all houses were one story high, and even in 1936 more than 70 percent of all urban dwelling units were in one or two story buildings. In the smaller cities now being rebuilt, there are usually a few three or four story apartment houses in the center, surrounded by low buildings in gardens. In the totally destroyed city of Velikie Luki, for example, one half of the 12,000 dwelling units will be in two story flats and the other half in one story houses, at an average net density of six families per acre.

Many owner-built houses in villages feature cowsheds, haybarns, and other agricultural outbuildings on quarter-acre lots. However, in contrast to the peasant huts, they all have fireproof roofs covered with tile, sheet iron, or asbestos shingles, and are wired for electricity and radio. They usually contain a kitchen of 50 to 60 square feet or a kitchen-dining room of 85 to 100, a living room or a living-bedroom of 120 to 160, and one to three bedrooms of 60 to 80 square feet each.

Compared to prewar practice, both the number and the size of the rooms are being reduced. Previously, design had been based on the assumption of the "sanitary norm" of 97 square feet per capita, and of a family of four, five, or six persons. However, as the available space averaged only slightly more than half the norm, most houses and apartments were occupied by two and three families. Now the facts are being faced realistically, on the assumption of 64 square feet per capita and of a predominance of small families in the larger cities. A sample survey of Moscow apartment houses in 1940 showed a distribution of families by size not very different from that found in American cities. (see table one)

TABLE ONE

Distribution of Families by Size, Moscow 1940

1 person	10%
2 persons	21%
3 persons	26%
4 persons	24%
5 persons	12%
6 persons	5%
7 or more persons	2%

It is admitted that for a number of years it will be possible to build individual houses and apartments only for large and medium size families, while all families of one person, many of two, and some of three persons will still have to be accommodated in "communal" quarters; and these quarters are now frankly designed as such. One type contains three rooms of 135, 143, and 175 square feet, a kitchen of 65 square feet, with three gas ranges and three cupboards but only one sink, a toilet, and a washroom. An improved type contains, in addition to the sanitary facilities, three rooms of 193 square feet, each with a kitchenette of 30 square feet, and one room of 125 square feet with a kitchenette of 25 square feet.

Type and size of the family apartments are shown in table two.

TABLE TWO

No. of Persons	Apartment Total (Area In Square Feet)	Living-room	1. Bed-room	2. Bed-room	Kit-chen	Sanitary Facilities	No. of Closets
4	670	225	135	88	65	bath & W.C.	3
3	560	210	150	—	65	bath	2
2	500	210	72	—	65	bath	4
4	390	155	110	—	52	bath	2
3	330	145	75	—	43	shower	3
2	265	140	—	—	40	shower	1
4	330	130	115	—	35	W.C.	1
3	265	190	—	—	35	W.C.	1
2	200	127	—	—	35	W.C.	1

The middle group represents the predominant type. The third group is a "simplified" emergency type, whereas the upper group represents an "improved" type of which a relatively small number will be built for scientists, artists, and other privileged persons. All apartments are arranged in a simple "ribbon" pattern, one stair hall serving two "communal" or two bedroom apartments, or four apartments of smaller size. The first group retains the excessive prewar height per story of ten feet; in the other types the height has been reduced to nine, and there are advocates of the American standard of eight feet. The shape of the rooms and the placing of doors, windows, and closets have been studied to allow for rational arrangements of furniture of standard dimensions; this enables the occupants to make the best use of the limited space.

The emphasis is now definitely on livability instead of on the false monumentality frequently to be observed in prewar housing. In the journal *Planned Economy*, for instance, a writer calls for "open courts and intimate interior courts combined with greenery . . . no superfluous decoration. So called beautifications — columns, immense arches and parapets, marble pedestals, etc. had already been condemned by public opinion and by the government before the war."

Together with this turn toward the intimate, there is an increased interest in the national heritage. In Moscow an exhibition and lecture on the architectural history and reconstruction of Leningrad aroused great interest; in the discussion many soldiers showed themselves to be well informed. Among the 400 books published in 1946 by the Academy of Architecture are not only volumes on the history of city planning, on the history of dwelling houses in the Caucasus and in Central Asia, and on national art, but also books on American housing and city planning and on the work of contemporary architects such as Frank Lloyd Wright, Auguste Perret, and Le Corbusier.

As in our country and elsewhere, the tendency to provide any housing, anywhere, anyhow, greatly endangers the rebuilding of cities in accordance with a comprehensive plan. "It is characteristic of Smolensk and other towns", we read, "that all the inhabitants who have returned strive to build their houses on the exact sites of the old homes."

However, the Soviets have from the beginning taken a firm stand against the temptation to follow the line of least resistance. In 1943 the late President of the Union, Michael Ivanovich Kalinin, wrote, "Now the question arises — how to rebuild. We may simply restore the buildings on the foundation of the old plan, or we may provide a new plan. It seems to us that all creative forces of our architects and builders should be devoted to this matter, and, in the first place, the adequacy of the old plan should be subjected to review. . . . It may be objected that the replanning of cities complicates and even delays building and that this measure is achieved at rather high cost. I agree completely, but I still think it has to be done. After all, cities are rebuilt for centuries, and therefore monetary expenses in this matter have to be approached without stinginess."

In general, the policy is not to reconstruct any heavily damaged building if it would interfere with the city plan. Slightly damaged buildings, however, are demolished only in the interest of substantial improvement to the city as a whole; otherwise the plan is adjusted to permit their preservation.

In the countryside, most villages are rebuilt spontaneously by the farmers on the old site. "It is logical for people to want to live and work where their fathers and grandfathers lived before them", said architect Kolley[2] in a report on the reconstruction of farm villages at a session of the Academy of Architecture. In most cases therefore planning is restricted to creation of a center

[2] Kolley, one of the first Russian representatives of what Americans choose to call the "international style" was Le Corbusier's partner in the construction of the building of the Commissariat of Light Industry in Moscow. It is interesting to compare his acceptance of the feelings of the common farmer with Le Corbusier's proposals for the liquidation of the historic French village.

with the community buildings, and of a rationally organized site for the buildings required by the collective farm economy. In every district a model village with model houses and other buildings is built under the guidance of an architect, who supplies plans to the farmers of the district.

For the collective farm buildings, a site of four to ten acres is chosen close to the center of the *kolkhoz* fields, but at a distance of 200 to 700 feet from the houses, preferably downstream and leeward, and so located that tractors and cattle can reach the fields without crossing the settlement.

The other new element for which the traditional village plan provides no location, the community center, must contain sites for the following buildings, dependent on the size of the village:

TABLE THREE

	All Villages	500 Population	1000 Population	2000 Population
Kolkhoz administration	x	x	x	x
Reading room	x	x	x	x
Nursery school	x	x	x	x
Kindergarten	x	x	x	x
Bath house	x	x	x	x
Fire station	x	x	x	x
Elementary school (40 stud. min)		x	x	x
Store		x	x	x
Dining room (40 seats per 1000 pop.)			x	x
Bakery (1000 pounds daily)			x	x
Club (hall for 150 persons min)			x	x
Barber shop			x	x
Tailor and cobbler shop			x	x
"Medical point" (nurse-midwife)			x	x
Ten-year school (400 stud. min)				x

The lots owned by the individual farmers are generally not replanned, but a setback of 17 to 20 feet is usually required. Temporary houses are built in the rear of the lot so as not to obstruct later erection of the permanent house in the normal location. Where lots are too long and narrow, as is frequently the case, attempts at reallotment are made.

One interesting method is being used to achieve such reallotment gradually, in two steps. It is being applied in the village of Kornevskoye in Moscow Province. Here a new street has been laid out parallel to the main street and every second farmer has rebuilt his house in the rear of his own lot. This was acceptable to the householders because they could work their lots better from this central location. They were, however, not willing to exchange the front half of their lots for the rear half of their neighbors', because the rear ends of the lots had been neglected. Such an exchange is to take place at a later stage, when cultivation will have equalized the value of front and rear parcels.

Destroyed villages which were poorly located are being rebuilt on new sites. This is done where villages suffered from floods, or from lack of pure water, or were located on swampy ground, but most frequently where they were built on a heavily traveled highway. Also, if a village was too small to support a normal economic and social life, attempts are made to merge it with a neighboring village.

The task of selecting a new site and working out a new plan is entrusted to a committee consisting of the president of the *kolkhoz*, representatives of the township and county, a planner, a surveyor, an agronomist, a hygienist, and other experts, who work in collaboration with the *kolkhoz* members. The final decision must be made by the general assembly of the members and confirmed by the county council. Considerations in selecting a site are proximity to a highway, but with a separation of at least 300 feet, good water, high land, but not on windy hilltops, and preferably a southern slope. The street system is determined by the topography and the size of the village. Streets are 80 to 100 feet wide for cattle driving. The lots are usually about 100 feet by 300 feet, with space for house and farmyard, orchard, and vegetable garden. Nonfarm families receive lots of 16,000 square feet. If the village is large enough to support a school, the minimum size of the site is five acres, with ten acres for villages of over 250 families; the school building itself preferably is oriented southeast. The entrance to the village is frequently emphasized by an arch, or by posts, trees or seats.

While the planning of farm villages is a new field, most cities had officially confirmed plans before the war. These are now modified to adapt

them to changes resulting from war destruction or from new technical and economic developments. By the end of 1946, plans for the reconstruction of over 100 towns in Russia and 75 in the Ukraine had been completed. By decision of the government, a special program was adopted for the rebuilding of fifteen cities which had suffered more complete destruction than most. The program sets out detailed functions for the agencies of each ministry in each city. Efforts are to be concentrated primarily on the completion of one section of each city at a time. In general, rebuilding proceeds from the center toward the periphery, with a high priority for the restoration of architecturally and historically valuable buildings.

The projects follow the generally accepted principles of Soviet city planning: separation of clearly defined industrial and residential districts by protective green zones; a strongly emphasized city center, together with fully developed secondary centers; ample provision of parks and green spaces with particular emphasis on reclamation of lake and river fronts; a preference for broad plazas and avenues with impressive vistas, together with a lively interest in the silhouette of the city, generally rising from the periphery toward the center.

Each industrial district is served by an integrated railroad system which avoids the residential areas. Prohibitions against erection of residential buildings in the protective green zone have been strengthened. Through highways are to bypass the cities or to be placed in park strips; where this is not possible, there are to be parallel service drives. City streets are divided into three categories: 1. "Main thoroughfares", 83 feet to 135 feet wide, at intervals of about half a mile. Department stores, movies, clubs, etc. are to be built on these thoroughfares. 2. "Service streets", 40 feet to 67 feet wide, with setbacks of at least 10 feet, and service drives of 20 feet to 30 feet. No trolleys or trackless trolleys are to run on these streets. 3. "Special streets" for trucking or through traffic and park drives. Areas for off-street parking are required at all public buildings, markets, factories, railroad stations, theatres and movies. Five acres of green space are required for each 1,000 persons, in addition to the protective green zones and to the green belt surrounding each city.

Important modifications of prewar plans result from the increased use of one and two story dwellings, which in smaller towns will be used exclusively. In cities of 25,000 or more, the central part may consist of three and four story walk-up apartments. There will be a few elevator apartments in selected locations, in cities of over 100,000. There are usually four residential zones with the following characteristics:

TABLE FOUR

Type of Zone	Dwelling Units per Acre	Number of Stories	% Coverage (Maximum)
Semi-rural	3– 4	1–2	15
"Settlement"	10–12	1–2½	25
Flats	30–40	2–3	35
Apartments	40–60	3–4	35

The basic unit remains the "residential *rayon*" of 20,000 to 100,000 population, bounded by greenstrips or major highways. But there is much discussion of the suitable size and character of the "living complex", the smaller unit within the "residential *rayon*". In this connection there is keen interest in the corresponding American and British concepts of the "neighborhood". It is agreed that the block as the nuclear element of the city is outdated, but there is no agreement on what should take its place; "super-block" and "micro-district" seem to be popular concepts. There is, however, general acceptance of the essential functional requirements: access from home to school without crossing of busy streets; a shopping center within not more than 10 minutes walking distance; playgrounds for children within easy reach, and areas for passive recreation for older people not more than five minutes from their homes.

Normally, a neighborhood is planned as a unit for 3,000 to 7,000 persons with an interior green space containing the school, kindergartens for 60 percent of the three to seven year olds, nursery schools for 30 percent of those from less than one year to three years of age, places for quiet recreation, and, sometimes, a laundry and other service buildings.

Technical improvement of public utilities goes hand in hand with the rebuilding of the cities. Starting in 1947, the three largest cities were supplied with natural gas from sources several hundreds of miles distant: Moscow from the middle Volga, Leningrad from the Esthonian oil shales, and Kiev from the Carpathians. Central heating for districts is being extended. Subways will be introduced in Leningrad and Kiev, and in Moscow the existing system of six

radial lines will be supplemented by a 12 mile circle connecting seven passenger stations. The suburban railroads, hitherto electrified only around Moscow, Lengingrad, and Baku, will be electrified in four republican capitals, Kiev, Minsk, Riga and Vilno, and also in Kharkov, Rostov and Sverdlovsk in the Urals. Dozens of smaller cities will for the first time have trolley cars or trolley buses, and modern water and sewer systems.

The relation of the neighborhood to the larger unit of the "residential *rayon*" and the community facilities normally provided in each *rayon* can be seen from the following table for a community of 40,000:

TABLE FIVE

Type of Institution	Number of Persons Served	Number of Units	Persons per Unit
Neighborhood	40,000	6–10	4000–7000
Schools	8,000	10	800
Kindergartens	2,400	12–40	60–150
Nursery schools	960	8–16	60–120
Theatre			400 seats
Movie theatre			400 seats
Restaurant	10,000		1700 seats
Hotel			200 beds
Hospital			350 beds
Clinic			400,000 visits annually
Public bath			350 places
Public laundry	8,000		
Service garage			400 cars

As a result of the relocation of industry, several entirely new cities will be built. A city of about 50,000 population is planned for the new Transcaucasian Metallurgical Works. Here the residential district will be separated from the works by the river Kura and by a large river-front park, with the three main streets radiating from the center of the city.

When existing cities are replanned, the plans are fully discussed in mass meetings and conferences. This is done even in completely destroyed cities such as Smolensk, where such discussion led to substantial modification of the location of industries, the use of the river banks, and the street layout.

In cities not destroyed by the war, the prewar plans are usually carried out with minor modifications. In Moscow, the most important change, in connection with the greater emphasis on two story houses, is an extension of the city's area to 150,000 acres. A greater percentage of the population will be housed on the plateau southwest of the city center. This section enjoys favorable climatic conditions due to its situation windward of heavy industry and to its elevation of 300 feet above the Moskva River. The park system is being extended to include six forest parks, 15 general parks for city-wide use, 20 sport-parks, 40 *rayon* parks, and 80 children's parks. The period for carrying out the complete master plan is now expected to be closer to thirty years than to the fifteen originally scheduled.

Similarly, in the Baku metropolitan area, the satellite city of Sumgait, planned in the early thirties, is only now being built. In other cities, development has been more rapid than expected. Stalinsk in Siberia, for instance, was planned in 1930 for an ultimate population of 165,000. It had 225,000 residents in 1945, and the new plan provides for growth up to 600,000.

In Leningrad, reconstruction follows the plan worked out in 1935–38 with some improvements of traffic thoroughfares. Other changes will develop further the beauty of the city, its intimate connection with majestic expanses of water. A broad boulevard to the sea will be built on Vassily Island, a square will be opened up from the Finnish Railroad Station to the Neva, and a large city park will be created along the banks of the river.

In Kalinin, the plan of the old city, a masterpiece of late 18th century city planning, is being carefully preserved despite heavy destruction. In Rostov, the former rather drab gridiron pattern will be improved by a sequence of squares following a main artery, and the banks of the Don are being reclaimed for a park. In Kiev, where the population is expected to grow from its prewar 900,000 to one and a half million by about 1960, expansion is planned both on the plateau to the northwest and on the eastern bank of the Dnepr, and an island between this new residential district and the old city is being transformed into a 2,000 acre park. The cultural, educational, and shopping facilities are being systematically decentralized.

In some cities, planners are taking advantage of war destruction to improve the city pattern fundamentally. In the Esthonian capital of Tallinn, heavy industry and the main classification yards were located in the northwestern part of the city. Both are now being relocated in the eastern suburbs, on the leeward side of the residential districts.

In Novorossiisk, the residential areas were interspersed with the cement works which are the main industry of the city. In the future, the bulk of the population will live on the south side of the bay, while heavy industry will be located on its northern shore. Both sides will be connected by a highway skirting the bay and by motor launches. At the head of the bay a rail-bus-water terminal for tourist travel and hotels and tourist hostels will be built. The waterfront on the south side will be reclaimed for recreational purposes, with the main square of the city as a center. The street pattern is being redesigned to follow the contours. The houses of the city, one, two and three stories high, will be developed on horizontal terraces, emphasized by the contrasting vertical line of a monumental tower on the central plaza to commemorate the heroic defense of the city which marked the turning point of the German advance along the coast of the Black Sea. Novorossiisk suffers from floods as well as from high winds from the northeast. As a protection against both dangers, reforestation of the surrounding hills is included in the plan. This is to be supplemented by several densely planted parkways in the city and by flood control basins in the hills, which also serve as supplementary sources of industrial water supply.

Responsibility for the planning of each of these cities, lies with an architect who heads a group which includes economists, engineers, hygienists, landscape architects, and other specialists. The work receives over-all guidance from the Committee on Architectural Affairs. Within this general framework, a number of organizations cooperate. The general plan for the reconstruction of Stalingrad, for example, was worked out by the Academy of Architecture and confirmed by the Committees on Architectural Affairs both of the Russian Republic and of the Soviet Union. The projects for different sections of the city were worked out by *Gorstroiproyekt* (City-Building-Project), an organization of the Ministry of the Building Industry.

The new plan of Stalingrad accentuates and develops the original pattern, a number of separate units, each consisting of industrial plants with a workers' settlement, strung out over a length of forty miles on the slopes which descend from the steppe plateau to the banks of the Volga. In the new plan the waterfront is cleared of railroads, warehouses, and industries, and the open spaces between the built-up areas are freed from encroachments and developed as parks. Each unit is to have the character of a small or medium sized town, with a central square on the height of the plateau. Major traffic arteries are to skirt these communities. There will be three major arteries paralleling the river: a lower one, connecting the industries through the waterfront park; a middle one, connecting the centers of the residential sections with the city center (generally running above the industries, but below the residential sections); and an upper one, serving as a peripheral trucking highway.

In the central section of the city, the middle artery assumes the character of the main street with public buildings, banks, theatres, etc. It is crossed at right angles by a 300 foot wide boulevard leading from the river bank up to the main square of the city which is crowned by a huge memorial. Public buildings and monuments will stand out against the background of the residential sections with their quiet, simple, intimate architecture, mostly two stories high, with some three to five story houses in the center and a few higher buildings accentuating some points along the waterfront.

The whole city will be surrounded on the land side by a forest belt, and the green of the parks will be supplemented by shade trees in the streets. The open area inside the blocks will be largely allotted to the individual houses because of the difficulties of maintenance of large public yards.

It is certainly difficult, as American visitors state, to visualize the future city in the rubble of present day Soviet cities. Yet, with a comprehensive national plan of economic development and with detailed plans for the physical rebuilding of every city, the future path of reconstruction can be traced with reasonable certainty. Only two circumstances might bring fundamental changes: total war — or total peace. A state of affairs which would allow the country to divert to reconstruction all resources now earmarked for national defense would make possible a far more rapid improvement of the standard of living than has been scheduled by the fourth Five Year Plan.

RECONSTRUCTION: FRANCE

Catherine Bauer

Catherine Bauer, Vice-President of the National Public Housing Conference, and Lecturer at Harvard University, was the Federal Public Housing Authority's delegate to the International Federation of Housing and Town Planning Congress at Hastings. She is on the Editorial Council of TASK, and her advice and assistance has been invaluable; her lead article serves as an introduction to and summary of this issue.

SINCE the material on French reconstruction sent by André Bouxin, editor of *Techniques et Architecture*, had not arrived by press time, the editors of TASK have asked me for a brief comment based on my European visit of more than a year ago. In view of the shifting political climate, and since my impressions of the French situation were superficial even as of 1946, these paragraphs are merely a last-minute editorial makeshift.

Perhaps a human interest anecdote may serve for a starter. The French delegation to the 17th International Housing and Town Planning Congress at Hastings in October 1946, was large and impressive, including top professional men and representatives of all major parties and levels of government. And they made a fine gesture at the outset of the Congress to demonstrate that international fellowship in housing and city planning matters transcends political boundaries and differences to a remarkable degree. They crossed the Channel together in a private launch, without the proper official papers. Naturally, they were taken into custody by the Hastings harbor police — but they were soon let out, amid much fraternal back-slapping and jokes about William the Conqueror, Dunkirk, and the invasion that didn't come off. In a way this little *tour de force* set a keynote for the conference.

The French reports to the Congress are worth reading, including a detailed exposition of Housing Technique by M. Pol Abraham on behalf of the Ministry of Reconstruction, two interesting official reports on decongestion of central areas, industrial decentralization and regional planning, and a theoretical analysis of the neighborhood unit, with some fresh views, by Gaston Bardet, secretary of the planners' organization.

On reaching France, however, I found little evidence of a bold planning policy in the making. Legislative argument centered mainly around such emergency questions as war-damage payments. A new land planning law was under discussion but even the Communist officials in the Ministry apparently did not anticipate anything comparable to the steps taken in England.

Party politics have been paramount in France ever since the war, of course, but most politicking seems to be at a thoroughly abstract and emotional level. I asked a great many people to refer me to party platforms, or statements by important political leaders, on housing and land planning policy. But the answer was invariably a surprised, "Impossible!"

Whether adequately planned or not, however, considerable reconstruction work has been accomplished. There was very much damage: 162 towns of over 10,000 population were officially declared "sinistré" (devastated), and 1,654 smaller communes. But by October 1946, 230,000 destroyed or uninhabitable dwellings had been made livable and 75,000 new homes erected, mostly of a temporary nature — not a bad total since it would mean proportionately a million dwellings in the U.S.A. Many of the new homes were put up by the AJAR, an organization for the training and rehabilitation of unemployed, unskilled, and often homeless young people, rather similar to our old NYA.

Lacking effective overall legislation, the Ministry of Reconstruction has nevertheless undertaken several experiments which may prove significant. It obtained sample prefabricated houses from all over the world, including the U.S.A., and erected them in a "Cité d'Experiences" at Noisy-le-Sec, near Paris. It also asked a number of eminent architects to construct model apartment houses according to their own plans with a minimum of supervision, at State expense. The one by Perret, at Orleans, was almost completed in October 1946. When I was there on the basis of these experiments a program of 25,000 government constructed houses was to be started.

And finally, the Ministry allotted war-devastated towns to all the prominent architect-planners in the country, including Le Corbusier, Lurçat, Perret, and others, and retained them to prepare reconstruction plans, again with a maximum of individual freedom. Many of these plans have been published in the September 1946 issue of *Architecture d'Aujourd'hui* and several issues of *Techniques et Architecture*. It is to be hoped that at least some of these plans will be carried out.

RECONSTRUCTION: GERMANY

Walter Gropius

Walter Gropius, now divides his time between teaching, at Harvard, and private practice. His most recent book is "Rebuilding our Communities" (1946).

PROFESSOR Walter Gropius, Chairman, Department of Architecture, Harvard University, served as a consultant on housing and city planning problems to the United States Military Governor for Germany, General Lucius D. Clay, during the summer of 1947. The full text of Professor Gropius' report to General Clay as released at the close of 1947 by Kenneth C. Royall, Secretary of the Army, is published here as a document important to the reconstruction of Germany:

According to the assignment given me, I made first a rough study of the physical planning and building problems in Germany. Second, I gave lectures and informal talks in public and to a number of private groups in Berlin, Hannover, Frankfurt, Stuttgart and Munich.

First, the wholesale destruction of the German cities needs extraordinary means to rehabilitate them socially and physically. The structure of population, the means of production and transportation have basically changed after the war. An attempt at integrating the new conditions within the German area as a whole has not been made by German agencies, as far as I can find out, except for the *Deutscher Staedtetag* dealing with the legal problems involved. The planning is done only locally by city planning commissions. Confusion resulting from haphazard emergency building in destroyed city areas is noticeable; by lack of building restrictions for areas to be rehabilitated, master plans if any, are in danger of being blocked, if limited objectives are not subordinated to their broader aims.

A central committee — like our former National Resources Planning Board or like the former German *Reich's Research Institute for Economy in Planning and Housing* of the pre-Nazi period should fill the gap. Such a committee or "Institute for Planning and Building Integration" should start research in the structure and functions of the whole middle European area, e.g., distribution and changes in population, inventory of means of production, of transport and of utilities, land-use maps, and legislation for zoning and for eminent domain. The committee should be composed of the best technical experts in building, planning and economy, to be chosen for their ability rather than for party membership.

As a result of such a research, the committee should give new directives to a Ministry of Reconstruction, which would need executive power to integrate German planning and building into a consistent whole. Under the control and with the support of the Military Governments it should distribute the actual building tasks within the German area according to their expediency and should interrelate them with each other.

As long as the pre-conditions for final physical planning cannot yet be fulfilled, directives given by a Ministry of Reconstruction to the sub-areas must remain extremely flexible leaving sufficient leeway for local planning boards to integrate the functions of dwelling, working, recreation and transportation according to local conditions.

For the establishment of the "Institute for Planning and Building Integration", the *Institut fuer Bauwesen der Deutschen Akademie fuer Wissenschaft*, Berlin, might be a suitable framework if it is reorganized and supported by the Military Governments.

The most urgent task in the procedure of planning is to put a framework of legislation in force to regulate the intricate problems of eminent domain so indispensable to avoid the perpetuation of obsolete city patterns within the destroyed areas. The *Deutscher Staedtetag* composed of the mayors of larger cities is instrumental in formulating at present a law to give the cities power to expropriate and to zone, where vital interests of the community are in

danger of being blocked by private interests. The excellent new English legislation now in force and born out of similar conditions as prevail in Germany offers valuable suggestions for the German legislator.

The next in rank of urgency is the problem of social rehabilitation by means of a new organic framework of administration. This should be built up on the smallest self-contained planning unit — the neighborhood of from 5,000 to 8,000 people — to promote a sound new pattern of community living in cities as well as in the country. Such a neighborhood unit, when derived in pattern, scale and size from biological human factors, will challenge the German citizen to participate responsibly within his local group, thus promoting democracy. By strengthening the community relations through a physical setting which is properly scaled to the individual, initiative and law consciousness, undermined by the Nazi and by the following catastrophe, can be regained.

In keeping with systematic planning the shortage of manpower and materials call for a rationalization of building methods. Valuable contributions made in the pre-Nazi period, before 1933, however, have been forgotten. A mechanistic and technocratic attitude derived from the Nazi mentality instead of a creative one is still prevalent. This is particularly apparent from the attempts at building standardization by *Di-Normen*. Professor Ernst Neufert, Darmstadt, who had headed the Building Standard Section under the Nazi Minister Speer tries to overstandardize within the "German Normenausschues". He goes even beyond the ruling established under Minister Speer which is still in force today. The building module (Raster) suggested for the whole German building industry and architecture appears to be deliberate and narrow, blocking creative design and technical invention. The building field, particularly in Germany, is still so much in flux that a too schematic simplification is apt to become a strait-jacket. If standardization is made inflexible and dictatorial, it promotes intellectual sterility. The *Di-Normen* should be re-examined from the biological point of view in order to give greater freedom and responsibility needed for a true rationalization of the building field. The democratic element among architects, inventors and builders who express strong objections against the prevalent mechanistic approach to standardization should be allowed to organize in order to counteract overstandardization.

The obvious approach to overcome the shortage of manpower and materials is certainly to develop methods of prefabrication of component parts of dwellings which can be assembled to house units of varying sizes and appearances. Though, full mechanized prefabrication appears still to be hardly feasible in Germany at present — for it needs much capital and a steady flow of materials to be truly economical — preparation for prefabrication cannot be started early enough.

The Stuttgart exhibition of *Fertighauser* is a respectable beginning. But the methods suggested there are still halfway methods. Most of the systems shown are bound to suffer from condensation which problem has not been properly solved. The design of the houses still imitate the old fashioned houses with heavy roofs and cellars instead of adapting it consequently to mechanized production. The constructions made from porous light-weight concrete, however, might bring an answer to the present housing problem if the breakage of the delicate slabs occurring in transport can be overcome. The Building Material and Construction Section of OMGUS is at present dealing with this problem.

The use of light-weight concrete and possibly also plastics for housing may be hampered and retarded, however, by the decision of the Control Commission to reduce the chemical industry by 50 percent.

The absence of a patent law is said to be detrimental to the development of new technical ideas and improvements as inventors lack the incentive of securing a benefit for themselves.

The opinions about the use of rubble for building material vary greatly. The question raised is mainly whether the manpower necessary to transport the rubble and to process it is too large. After having seen the factory under construction in Frankfurt Main, the products in Stuttgart and elsewhere and computations on quantities of materials used and on cost, there remain doubts whether these synthetic rubble units will be finally economical if all the factors of cost are considered. Their production, no doubt, needs less coal than normal bricks, but on the other hand, cement needed for the production of rubble units is a most critical material. Any material, however, available for the beginning of reconstruction is certainly welcome even if it is not strictly economical. But, before more factories should be erected, this economical factor needs to be checked up more carefully.

From many sides, the desire has been expressed to be supported by technical libraries making the Germans acquainted with technical books and magazines from the United States and other countries.

Second, from numerous discussions with German officials and with members of cultural circles which I have addressed, I have come to the conclusion that an active support of their unusual desire to become acquainted with cultural activities will help to stimulate them and to strengthen their initiative. Material poorness probably can be overcome only by spiritual and intellectual means. The activities which have been started by Information Control to fulfill this widespread desire through progressive exhibitions of architecture, industrial design, painting and sculpture and through lectures and discussions may burst open the vicious circle of frustration caused by the German catastrophe.

Particularly, the older generation who has been educated before the Nazi regime and has experienced the democratic period after the First World War, needs psychological encouragement and stimulation. They are needed for the education of the youth, to bridge the educational gap caused by the Nazis. Again and again, I have been asked by representatives of that age group to suggest that more foreign experts should give informative lectures and to send some well-chosen Germans out in exchange to see for themselves. From the wide-spread hunger for cultural information which I have observed, I have come to believe that a concerted action in this direction would have a refreshing effect on the Germans and would bring tangible results of reactivation also in other fields not directly related to culture. Such results might bring manifold compensations for the expenses spent by Information Control.

Of the pre-Nazi movements at the cultural level which, in my opinion, deserve to be supported in the attempts to reorganize, I recommend: The *Deutscher Werkbund*, the *Bauhaus* movement and the German branch of *CIAM* (*Congrès Internationaux de l'Architecture Moderne*, Zurich, Switzerland).

RECONSTRUCTION: ITALY

E. G. Faludi

E. G. Faludi, who studied and practiced architecture in Italy until 1937, is Director of Town Planning Consultants, Ltd., in Toronto, Canada, and an officer of the recently formed Canadian Institute of Professional Town Planners.

WHILE no other European country has advanced sufficiently to follow the British example of legislation to control the use and development of all land, Italy perhaps has come the closest to it. Its legislation requiring the existence of a Master Plan before reconstruction gives wide powers to local governments in the use of land for the redevelopment of destroyed or damaged communities. In addition, the construction industry which emerged intact from the war is capable of tackling the problems concerned with rebuilding the destroyed areas.

The only objectives of the Italian reconstruction policy are to secure social welfare and to improve living conditions. The past concept of planning avenues, plazas and monuments has been replaced by the concept of designing on a human scale for human happiness. This is contrary to programs in other countries, where endless monuments dedicated to national greatness are being erected.

The rebuilding of a new Italy is being done with the help of young planners who are equipped with a humanitarian spirit and the skill and craftsmanship of modern times. This seems to rival the Renaissance period.

A remarkable process is now apparent, especially in Lombardy (northern Italy). There are competitions all over the country, required by law, for the replanning of each destroyed municipality and for the redesigning of hundreds of damaged public buildings. These competitions have given many opportunities to fresh talent, previously unknown, and the results are benefiting the reconstruction movement greatly.

Young architects, chiefly graduates of the schools of Naples, Rome, Florence, Venice, Milan, and Turin have invaded small urban and rural centers all over the country where no professional practice previously existed.

This process has been apparent since the early thirties, but it assumed large proportions only after the war. In the last two decades, the young pioneers have tackled every planning problem that public and private enterprise entrusted to them — from county-fair stands and one-room rural schools to cathedrals and factories. The educational effect of this movement was such that soon even conservative public agencies such as the State Railway Company realized the time had come to replace their obsolete structures. In a few years functional railway stations sprang up all over Italy. These were designed for efficiency and the well-being of the passengers instead of for "impressive" architectural acrobatics. Modern post offices, courthouses, hospitals, community centers and stadiums were built in every community of any importance, challenging the historical fame of the local ruins and palazzos of classical periods. However, among these public buildings there were some that did not satisfy admirers of contemporary architecture. This was inevitable under a political system which considered party merit above professional qualities.

The complete change from traditional to modern architecture which has been taking place during the last twenty-five years is now evident, not only among a few chosen intellects, but among the general public.

The progressive groups of Italian architects came to the same conclusions at the same time as the pioneers and prophets who began preaching functionalism in Austria, Germany, Switzerland, France, and Holland. In Italy the approach to the understanding and appreciation of the new architecture was more intuitional than logical. Designers were often inspired by the functional structures which peasants built in the countryside — in the valleys and on the hills of Lombardy and Veneto — and those which fishermen erected on the Ligurian seashores and along the Tyrrhenian coast, mainly around Sorrento, Torre del Greco, Ischia and Capri. The structures — barns and houses — designed by primitive peasant craftsmen were based on a consideration of the space required, the functions to be fulfilled, the available local materials and their structural possibilities, and the characteristics of the building sites.

Le Corbusier states in one of his latest publications that the principles of modern architecture are not yet understood except by a tiny band of brothers. This may be true among the lonely urban intellectuals of Paris, London, New York, and Rio de Janiero, but it is definitely not true among generations of rural people in Italy. They discovered the truth of functionalism centuries before the modern prophets appeared.

The lessons learned from them inspired the

architects with new imagination in designing for the purposes that a building must serve and provided them with resourcefulness in making the most economic use of materials and tools.

An amazing process is taking place in educating the population of a whole country to appreciate a new type of architecture completely different from that in the everyday urban scene. More than 2,000 years have amassed in Italy every kind of historical ruin, monument, and structure, some of which are still useful.

Against the everlasting decorative buildings of the rich classical past, exhibitions and publications are teaching a new architectural philosophy, the beauty of the functional structure. Exhibitions of every kind, whether displays of agricultural or industrial products or arts, ultimately serve this purpose, and so does the daily press, so do weeklies and other periodicals.

New buildings that are erected anywhere in the public view receive the criticism of the press in the same way as a new play, or an exhibition in an art gallery. All these call upon a large public if not to appreciate, at least to notice contemporary architecture.

In spite of the difficulties caused by political unrest, Italy revived in the summer of 1947 the *Triennial International Exhibition* of town planning, architecture, building materials, and furniture in Milan. This was the eighth of a series extending over a period of thirty years. The most recent previous one was in 1939.

The unique theme of the exhibition was the reconstruction of urban centers. This was emphasized by the display of new building materials and blueprints of minimum-standard housing projects.

One of the noteworthy features in the exhibition was the plans and models of an experimental neighborhood under construction in the north section of Milan.

Ten thousand people will be accommodated in this project that is being built by using the most up-to-date technical methods and building materials. Roads, public utilities, sewerage system, and a five-hundred-unit veterans' housing section were already under way when the exhibition was opened.

At the same time, the State Railway Company also held an exhibition in Rome, displaying its reconstruction and development program. This exhibition was arranged within the restored ruins of the *Mercati Traianei*. The large cells of this classic Roman market sheltered the various display divisions.

All aspects of railway operations were presented. Among the most interesting were models showing new railway stations, low-rental housing projects for railway employees, and bridges of steel, reinforced concrete, and masonry.

The Italian State Railway Company's efficiency in tackling reconstruction problems are indicated by the high percentage of rebuilding of destroyed facilities achieved up to May 1947 — two years after the end of the war: 50 percent of railway tracks; 42 percent of masonry bridges; 20 percent of steel bridges; 33 percent of tunnels; 54 percent of railway stations.

The wide interest of philosophers and the contribution of professionals, artists, and technicians in the social and physical reconstruction of Italy is best indicated by the appearance of a great number of new publications covering all phases of the rebuilding process.

In addition to the well-known prewar periodicals, *Domus* and *Architettura Italiana* (which are under new management), the newest and most outstanding are: *Reconstruzione Urbanistica*, *Metron*, *Cantieri*, *Stile*, and *Tracciati*.

The leading articles emphasize better living conditions, the results of town planning, competitions, housing projects, and new technical methods for mass production of dwellings. Contributions to technical knowledge and to higher standards of planning come from the various professional fields all over the country, indicating the existence of well-prepared technical skill to tackle the work ahead.

There is also a great interest shown in the international exchange of planning and housing literature.

The wartime housing achievements of neutral Switzerland are widely published and admired. Its neighborhood planning principles that were boldly translated into practice are quoted as examples to be followed.

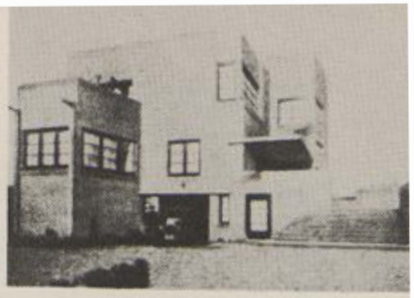
The recently published *Town Planning and Building Survey of the City of Milan* is positive evidence that the reconstruction process of Italy is realistic, and has also a new social content.

The rebuilding of a country politically, socially, and physically, is not a simple, everyday problem.

The peculiar conditions in which Italy found itself after the war have divided the country into many sections according to political viewpoints, from extreme left to extreme right. Despite the diverging political streams, when it comes to a consideration of the arts, the Italians are capable of judging objectively.

Today there is a general acceptance and an agreement that the destroyed villages, towns and cities shall be rebuilt with exclusive consideration being given to the functions they shall fulfill and the purposes they shall serve. This concept will, no doubt, affect the physical structure of these communities. We may expect many of them to emerge from their ruins with a completely new urban appearance.

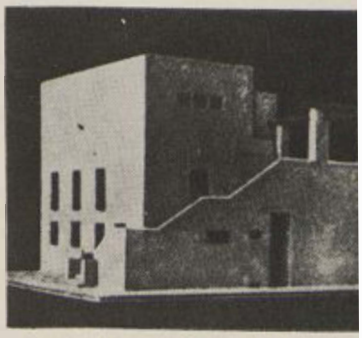
tches by E. G. Faludi



Left: *The principles of modern architecture have always been understood by the "fishermen builders" of Capri. They are at the same time both engineers and poets.*

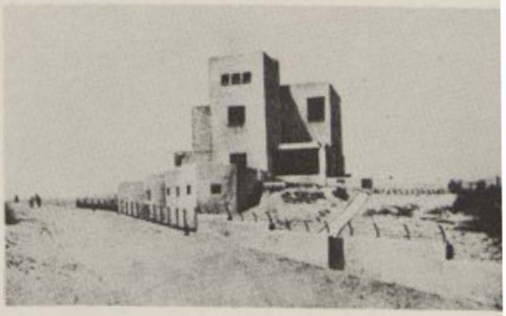
Right: *In the early twenties, W. Dudok, architect of many fine buildings in Hilversum and Amsterdam, began to advocate the theory of functionalism.*

CAPRI



Left: *This three-family house in Capri, with its open staircase, shows typical consideration of climate and local materials, combined with a felicity of structure.*

Right: *At the time Adolf Loos revolutionized the aesthetic philosophy of Europe, little consideration was given to environmental factors which influence country's designing and building conceptions.*



(Above)

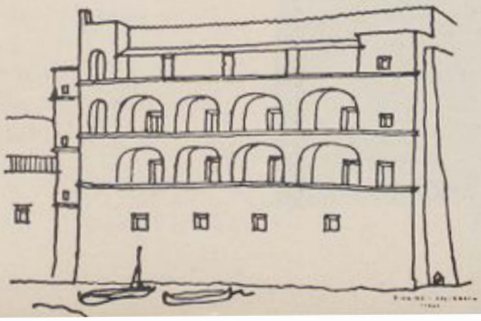
Left: *Torre Del Greco. A multiple family house used by one family and relatives only.*

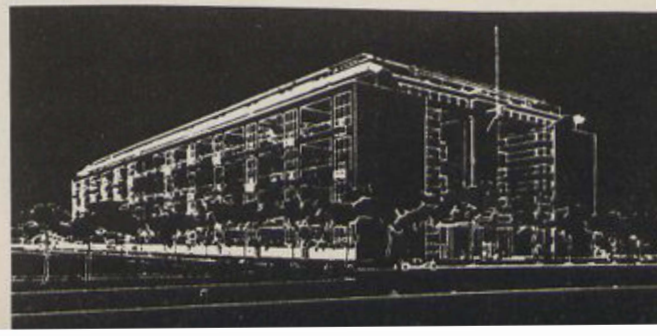
Right: *In contrast to the Italian peasant's house, is this house designed by J. J. P. Oud.*

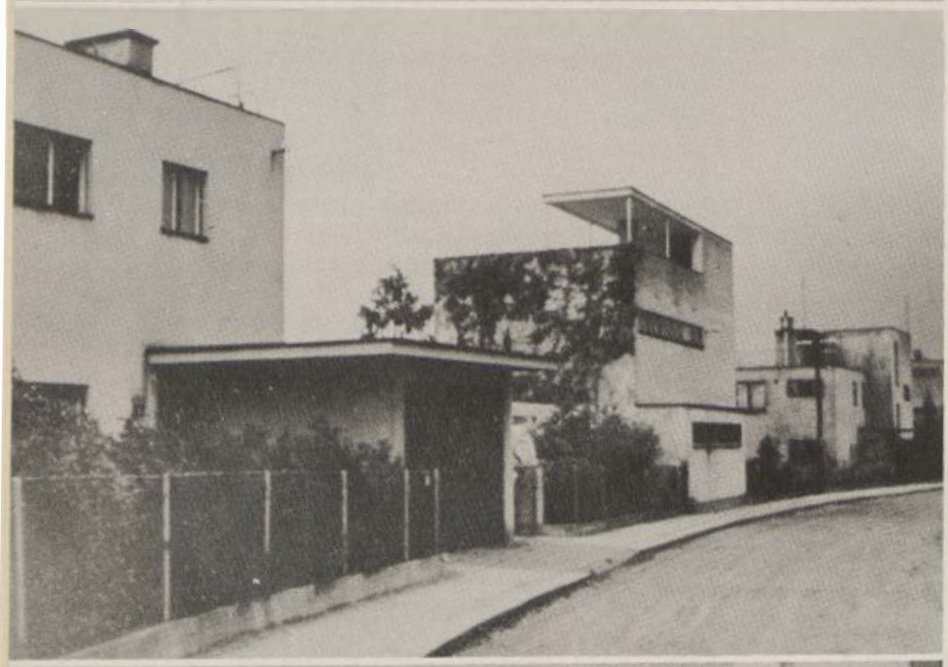
(Below)

Left: *Torre Del Greco. A typical fisherman's tenement house.*

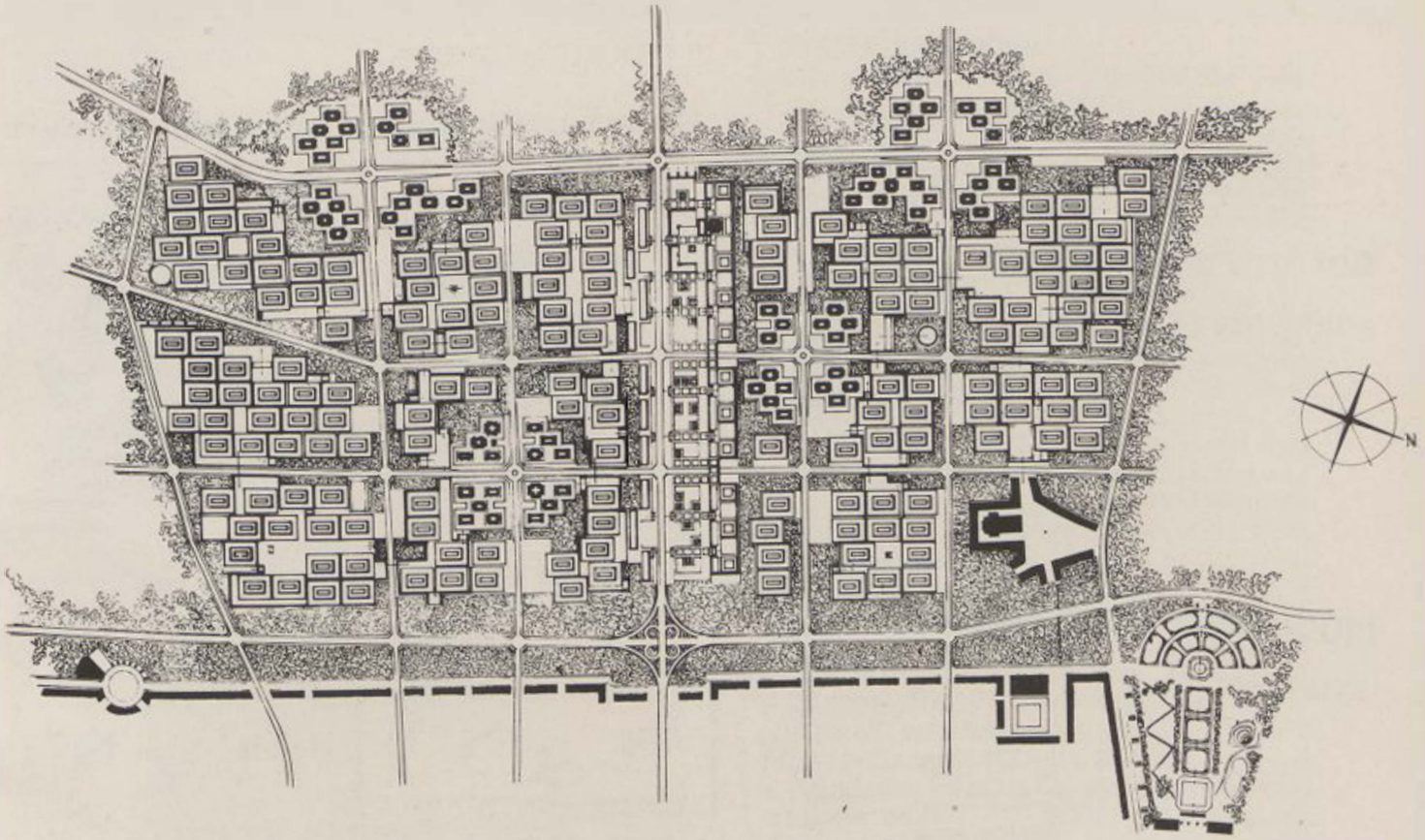
Right: *This large apartment house does not offer any greater advantage for collective living.*

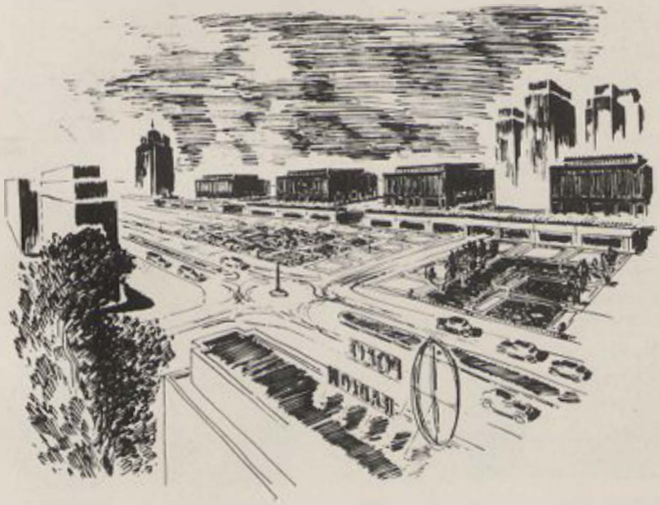






Top: *Social Insurance Building, Prague; J. Havlicek and K. Honzik, Architects.* (*F. Porges*)
Middle: *Private Czech luxury housing.* (*F. Porges*)
Bottom: *Zlin, Czechoslovakia, prefabs under construction; Vozelinek, Architect.* (*J. Hosken*)





Top: *Proposed plan for business district of Warsaw.*

Left: *Commercial axis of business district, Warsaw. (M. Nowicki)*

Right, middle: *Cooperative housing project, Warsaw. (H. and S. Syrkus). Destroyed during war and now rebuilt.*

Right, lower: *Experimental farm building at Piaseczno; concrete columns and wall panals.*

PERIOD OF RECONSTRUCTION

PERIOD OF INDUSTRIALIZATION

PERIOD OF URBANIZATION

I OKRES ODBUDOWY

II OKRES UPRZEMYSŁOWIENIA

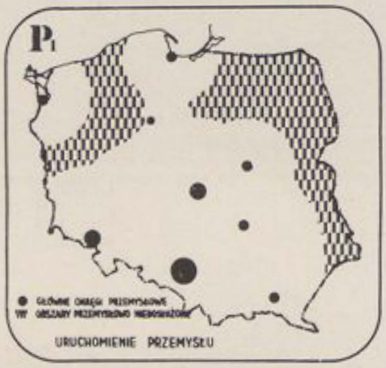
III OKRES URBANIZACJI

ROLNICTWO

AGRICULTURE

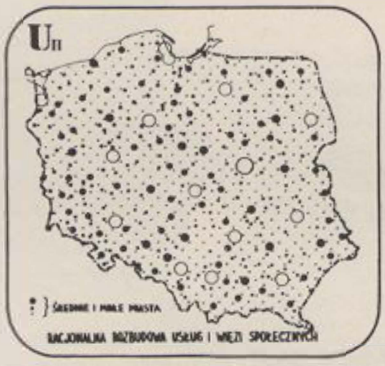
PRZEMYSŁ

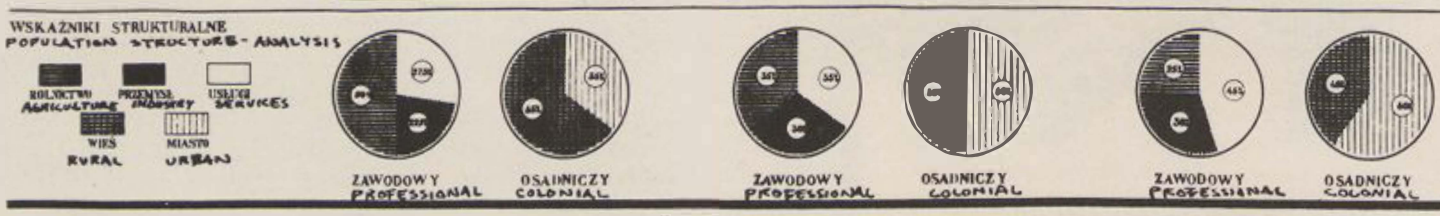
INDUSTRY



USŁUGI

SERVICES





PROGRAM ROZWINIĘCIA KONCEPCJI WSTĘPNEJ PLANU KRAJOWEGO

Preliminary concept of the National Plan: Program of further work.

There are proposed three successive stages: I — the period of reconstruction, II — the period of industrialization, and III — the period of urbanization (from left to right).

The plan is to provide for desirable changes within the three main groups of employment: e.g. in agriculture, industry and services (from top to bottom).

In each period another economic group becomes dominant.

RECONSTRUCTION: POLAND

Henry N. Cobb

Henry N. Cobb is a third-year student in architecture at the Graduate School of Design, Harvard University.

THE people of Poland have undertaken a bold experiment in democratic planning. Through careful correlation of immediate reconstruction work with long-range schemes for redevelopment Polish planners hope to establish the social, economic, and physical framework for a free and prosperous national life. It is possible to grasp the implications of such a program — the magnitude of the task and the scope of the opportunity — only in terms of the terrible devastation inflicted on Poland during World War II. The statistics which follow will make this clear: Of a prewar population of thirty-three millions, six million Poles (including a large proportion of professional people) were killed. Several millions more are missing. Warsaw, the capital, was four times ravaged and at the time of liberation was 85 percent destroyed. Of 1,300,000 inhabitants, 600,000 were killed. Gdynia, Gdansk, Poznan, Wroclaw, Szczecin — almost all of Poland's major cities with the exception of Lodz and Krakow — were 50 to 80 percent destroyed.

Within the space of six years, the countryside was three times overrun by conquering armies; in many areas agriculture ceased altogether and whole villages were completely wiped out. Industry was decimated. Transport was either non-existent or totally disrupted. And to complicate matters still further, the geographical location of the country was shifted by boundary adjustments and its area decreased.

This was the situation confronting twenty-four million Polish people after the liberation in March 1945. Fortunately, their leaders were not entirely unprepared. An awareness of the need for long-range economic and physical planning had developed in Poland between the two wars, and during the German occupation, work on the problems of planning was continued by the Government-in-Exile and by underground bodies in the occupied territories. The master plan for the Warsaw Metropolitan Community, for example, was conceived and developed during the occupation, and although most of the material was destroyed in the Warsaw Insurrection (August to September 1944), many of the ideas evolved were incorporated in the present plan.

In November 1944, the first office for planning on a national scale was formed as part of the Bureau of Planning and Reconstruction, an agency set up by the Lublin Government while the liberation was still in progress. This office was expanded in May of 1945 into the Central Office of Physical Planning, coördinating the activities of twelve regional offices and numerous local offices throughout the country. At the same time the Ministry of Reconstruction was officially established, and three months later the Central Office of Economic Planning was created to act in conjunction with the physical planning office. With the creation of each of these agencies, planners undertook successively greater responsibilities, but the place of physical planning in the structure of government was clearly defined and firmly established only by the passage in April 1946, of the Planned Physical Development of the Country Act. This act, which has justly been termed a "Constitution of Physical Planning", defines fully the scope of national, regional and local plans, provides for the organization of planning authorities, and establishes the procedure for preparation of plans and for their acceptance by the legislative authority.

Guided by the provisions of this law, planning offices throughout Poland have for the past year and a half been preparing detailed programs for reconstruction and redevelopment on the local and regional level. The work of these offices is coördinated in the Bureau of the National Plan, a department of the Central Office of Physical Planning. The preliminary concept of the National Plan, based on a synthesis of local, regional, and national surveys, has recently been published in Poland in diagrammatic form and is reproduced in TASK. The accompanying text describes clearly and simply the basic features of the plan. I quote it in full:

> The union of the three basic elements of planning — time, space and man — is essential in the plan.
>
> Planning in time leads to the division into three successive stages.
>
> The problem of man finds its expression in the division into three professional groups of agriculture,

industry and services, being the three basic types of economic activity.

Space is included in these studies by consideration of all phenomena from the point of view of their localization. For each of the three proposed periods of development, the economic activities are shown on three maps, corresponding to the three professional groups.

The period of reconstruction (I): At present there is a large surplus of agricultural population in Central Poland, and a shortage in the Recovered Territories. The plan's aim is to relieve that surplus by transferring part of the population to the Recovered Territories. As regards industry, the object is to revive the existing centers. Large areas in the North and East still remain without sufficient industrial service. In regard to services, there are considerable differences in the distribution of towns, due to the varying circumstances in which the process of urbanization took place in the individual regions. The elimination of agrarian overpopulation remains in the foreground throughout this period.

The period of industrialization (II): The remainder of the surplus of agricultural population will be directed to the expanding industrial areas.

It is necessary to provide at least three new centers of basic industries for the areas which are now inadequately served, and to decentralize the existing industrial areas.

As far as services are concerned, the most important task is to develop medium and small towns which till now have necessarily been neglected.

The problem of industry dominates in this period. As regards the professional structure, it is necessary to reckon with an increase of the industrial group and with the shrinking of the agricultural population in favor of the industrial and service groups.

The period of urbanization (III): Agriculture will specialize in relation to the main centers of consumption and to natural conditions. Industry will develop mainly for the production of service and consumption goods. Evenly distributed centers of urban industry will be provided. Full urbanization will consist in the creation of main centers of various grades and in the regionalization of the country, based on the main service centers. This period will be characterized in the first place by the urbanization and development of services.

While in the first two periods economic plans, based on plans of production, will exert a decisive influence on the economic and physical structure of the country, the last period will be influenced by the need to serve the whole population and the whole country. The distribution of towns and settlements will thus come to the foreground.

The authors of "Studies for the National Plan"* analyze as three-fold their major obstacles in the development of a national plan:

1. The devastations and chaos due to the war have led to the loss of nearly all statistical materials. The precise analysis of the present on the basis of newly-recorded data is extremely difficult owing to the present inadequacy of the administrative machine and the fact that important movements of population have not yet come to an end.

2. In order to define the scale of particular phenomena, physical planning should be based upon economic planning. The latter is at present of short-term character. The need to counteract the still-progressing decapitalization and to raise the extremely low standard of living has led to the elaboration of a three-year plan of reconstruction which is not a sufficient base for long-term physical planning.

3. The third difficulty in the preparation of the national plan is the fact that this sort of work is a comparative novelty, not only in Poland, but also in other countries. The problems of planning on this scale are so multiple and their complexity so great, that the lack of ready methods gives to the necessity of much experimental work.

Thus the preliminary concept of the national plan, the result of recent work on the part of the Central Office of Physical Planning, is to be regarded as a hypothesis serving the working purposes of the moment. . . . [It] aims at the comprehensive treatment of all component elements of the physical structure of the country. It cannot presume to settle all the details of national development. Nevertheless it represents an effort toward the conscious shaping of the cultural landscape, which is the ultimate object of physical planning.

* Published 1947 in Warsaw by the Central Office of Physical Planning.

The scope and objectives of such a program as this are unique and stimulating, but we may well ask ourselves, in view of the difficulties described above, how successful has been the attempt to correlate long-range planning with the immediate work of reconstruction. How much of the planning is actually being put into practice, and to what extent have the planners succeeded in restoring the physical assets of a ruined nation? The answers to these questions can best be sought through an examination of work in progress; the notes which follow are drawn from my observations during a visit to Poland in the summer of 1947.

Warsaw: The development of the now-famous city-region plan for Warsaw has been well documented, and a description appears elsewhere in this issue. Progress in the execution of this long-range plan, as well as in the immediate building program, is remarkable in view of the obstacles encountered, but still is only an iota of what promises to be a hundred year job. Because of its singular importance as the center of national life, Warsaw received between January 1945, and April 1946, 70 percent of all funds and materials allocated to urban reconstruction, and during the following eight months, 33 percent. Under the Three Year Plan (1947 through 1949), 8 percent of the total national budget will be devoted to the reconstruction of the capital. Since the liberation of the totally abandoned city in January 1945, the population has grown to 600,000, almost half of its prewar size. During this period: 200,000 mines have been removed from the city; five million cubic meters of ruins have been torn down (almost entirely by hand); one million cubic meters of rubble have been removed (horse-drawn wooden carts are the only means of transport available for this work), but twenty million cubic

meters of rubble remain to be cleared; one permanent and several temporary bridges have been built to span the Vistula; one viaduct has been built; 50 to 80 percent of public utility service has been restored throughout the city; over one million square meters of street paving have been laid; the public transport system has been restored (utilizing an odd assortment of tram cars of various gauges recovered from German cities); three and one-half million cubic meters of housing space (200,000 rooms) have been restored to use; 4000 hospital beds have been provided (there are now eight beds for every thousand inhabitants); reconstruction of the Cathedral of Saint John (as well as other ancient monuments) has begun; in the business center of the city, whole blocks of seemingly unsalvageable ruins have been restored to use and many new stores have been built.

For this extraordinary recovery of a once hopelessly shattered capital, credit must go first of all to the seemingly tireless populace, whose indomitable spirit has made Warsaw a symbol of hope for the entire nation. But the direction and coördination of this enormous effort, together with the progressive spirit which distinguishes the Warsaw plan, are the work of the Office for the Reconstruction of the Capital (BOS), whose 1400 employees constitute probably the world's largest city planning office. Here every aspect of the city's life is correlated and incorporated into plans for various stages of future development. When I visited the office, plans were in preparation for such diverse projects as a new neighborhood for the former Jewish district (now completely destroyed), a new business and civic group on the site of the destroyed railroad station, and a huge highway development, involving the construction of a new bridge and underpass and the reconstruction of the ancient royal castle. It was interesting to note, incidentally, that Warsaw's people are kept constantly in touch with such plans through a popular weekly newspaper, *STOLICA*, which publishes drawings, photographs of models, and other material as they appear. The citizens in turn make their point of view felt through unions, consumer groups, and local elective bodies, thus establishing a democratic interplay of ideas between the planners and the general public.

The legal basis on which BOS depends for the execution of its proposals resides in an act of September 1946, by which all land became the property of the municipality, while buildings remained in the hands of the original owners. The justice of such a procedure, even though undertaken in time of emergency, is, of course, seriously questioned by some, but a walk through the ruins of Warsaw is enough to persuade one that it is the only practicable method of dealing with the problem at hand. At the same time it offers planners a unique opportunity (even though conditions are far from ideal) to show what they can do to improve the lot of the city dweller.

Piaseczno: The village of Piaseczno is situated about 15 kilometers due south of Warsaw. Before the war Piaseczno was typical of the thousands of small communities which formed the backbone of Poland's predominantly agricultural economy. Its 286 inhabitants lived and worked in poverty under an outmoded system of land ownership which made survival difficult and prosperity impossible. Dwellings and farm buildings alike were little more than hovels of mud, wood, and straw. Schools, churches, and community facilities either did not exist or were of the crudest variety. The war came, and sometime during six years of terror, Piaseczno and hundreds of communities like it were wiped out.

When I visited the village, two and one-half years after its liberation, a new community had arisen from the ruins of the old. Poland's Central Office of Physical Planning, aware of the urgent need for the immediate restoration of a stable agriculture, has adopted Piaseczno and the parish of which it is a part as a laboratory for research into the problems of rural replanning. A series of surveys leading to a proposed plan for the district and demonstrating a high standard of planning technique has been made and published as a guide to local planning offices faced with similar problems. The study includes research into village layouts, economical land use, protective landscaping, development of local and district roads, distribution of industrial, service, and community centers, and technological problems of hydrography and geomorphology.

In the village of Piaseczno itself, a number of farm, dwelling, and community buildings have been constructed, making use of a variety of experimental techniques and materials — notably precast concrete structural elements: blocks, beams, and columns. The standards of both planning and building in this experimental district have purposely been set very high. Doubtless it will be impossible to reach the same level of technology in many rural areas for some years to come, but for Poland's large peasant population, decent living conditions and modern community facilities are at last in sight.

Krakow: Krakow, one of Poland's oldest and certainly her most beautiful city, came through the war almost unscathed. The city planning office has little more to worry about than the preservation of historic buildings and the improvement of overcrowded residential districts; but for the Regional Office of Physical Planning located in Krakow, the problem is more complex. With a rural population of 99 people per square kilo-

meter, the Vojevodship (administrative region) of Krakow is the most overcrowded agricultural area in Poland and as such has received special consideration in the formulation of the national plan. As stated in the outline of the plan, the surplus in this area is to be relieved by transferring part of the population to the Recovered Territories, where additional manpower is needed for industry, and where much arable soil (particularly in the northwest) is now entirely uncultivated. Out of a present rural population of 1,553,000 in the Vojevodship, 500,000, or approximately a third, are expected to move within a decade.

Concurrent with this reduction of population, planners are attempting to improve the living and working conditions of those farmers who remain. Particularly they wish to provide every farmer with one undivided tract of land (a convenience heretofore rare) and to supplement or redistribute existing inadequate service centers. At present thirty new service towns are contemplated for the Vojevodship, and detailed plans for two towns are now in preparation.

One aspect of redevelopment plans for this region emphasizes the strongly humanistic character of Polish planning: the Krakow region embraces some of the most beautiful country in Poland, and it is proposed, through the development of resorts, recreational facilities, and scenic highways, to make the enjoyment of such areas available to as many visitors as possible, from both home and abroad. I recall particularly one proposal by which a scenic highway was to be planned in conjunction with a large hydro-electric power system, involving a series of dams and artificial lakes. The project is a long-term one, but it is significant that its recreational as well as its economic value was being considered.

Katowice: If the future economic stability of Poland could be said to depend on one factor, that factor would be the output of the Silesian coal basin, of which Katowice is the main urban center. This area suffered considerable war damage, primarily to industrial plants; but most factories have now been restored to operation, and the main job confronting the planners is that of rehousing the population at present living on top of the coal basin, potentially the richest source of power in Europe. If this area is to be effectively mined, the greater part of the population (over 1,500,000 in the Katowice area) must be removed from the basin altogether, yet must be housed within reasonable commuting distance of the pits. The eventual solution to this problem will be a series of new towns located around the periphery of the basin and connected with the mines by a rapid-transit system. To date, only one such town has been projected; it is to be located about 20 kilometers north of Katowice and will have an "ideal" population of 120,000, including an already existing community of 12,000 inhabitants. Unfortunately, the execution of any such large-scale housing scheme is still very far in the future; but a small beginning in the form of miners' temporary housing (managed by workers' coöperatives) has already been made.

Wroclaw: The city of Wroclaw (formerly Breslau) faces a special problem of rehabilitation beyond the physical fact of its 80 percent destruction. Wroclaw is the most important urban center of Poland's newly-acquired western territories, and as such is one of the focal points of a large scale migration from the central and eastern regions, particularly those areas now ceded to Russia. This repopulation of new lands has presented enormous organizational problems throughout the Recovered Territories, but in Wroclaw the impact of the migrants has been especially great, because most of the city's 280,000 pioneer inhabitants have never before come in contact with urban life of any kind, let alone the shattered remains of a foreign city. The successful assimilation of these new citizens into their urban environment has been one of the major tasks of the local planning office. Though woefully understaffed, this office has undertaken extensive research into the specific needs of the newcomers, so as to help them settle and become acclimated as quickly and easily as possible. Though still largely in ruins, Wroclaw is today a city of feverish activity; the work of reconstruction there and throughout the Recovered Territories is of vital importance to the nation, whose hopes for future prosperity reside largely in the potentially rich but badly devastated western areas.

The foregoing notes are of course only a sampling of current physical planning and reconstruction work in Poland, but they indicate, I think, the extraordinary energy and imagination with which the Poles have attacked the task of recovery. The unique character and scope of the National Plan — not to mention the spirit of coöperation which made possible its development — are especially stimulating, and the experience gained during the period of its application should make an increasingly valuable contribution to the science of planning. The final objectives of the plan will be achieved only in the distant future, but a good beginning has already been made.

RECONSTRUCTION: WARSAW

Helene and Szymon Syrkus with Matthew Nowicki

THE story of Warsaw must be told with one fact in mind, a fact that has had a decisive bearing on all stages of the city's history.

Warsaw is situated at the crossroads of Europe.

If we visualize the map of the European continent, we recall a flat and wide glacial valley, bordered on one side by the Alpine mountain chains; by the Baltic Sea, on the other. This valley forms the only continental road between East and West, used for centuries for human expansion, trade, and war. The mountain chains of Europe present an obstacle for North-South crossing. Geographically Europe is divided into North and South. One of the North-South routes leads from the Baltic to the Black Sea through a wide, fairly flat sweep of land which is Poland.

At the crossing of these two routes, almost geometrically centered, lies Warsaw. Cities located in such a way grow as quickly as Chicago on a continent blessed with peace, but, as the history of Europe has been the history of wars, Warsaw in its many-centuries-old existence between periods of prosperity suffered more disaster than perhaps any other capital city in Europe.

Reconstruction, just as much as destruction, is nothing new to Warsaw, and Warsaw's dream is a final reconstruction in a world that will have wars no more. Then it will probably fulfill the prophecy of De Lesseps, becoming one of the most important links in world commerce.

Future Warsaw was conceived as a planned, functional *City-Region*, maintaining the best historical and architectural features and incorporating modern living standards and design. The demolition of Warsaw had presented an unusual opportunity for those who struggled for social progress: the monstrous tenements and chaotic land-uses had been destroyed as well. Warsaw citizens aimed to profit by this fact and to replan for a healthy, social city.

The *City-Region* scheme for Warsaw dates from the thirties when an exhibition was presented in London. Specialized areas for working, residence, and recreation were visualized. These units were to be connected by a rapid transit system, with distances measured not in miles but in time. Locations of the various areas and facilities were formulated on the basis of such factors as topography, soil, wind, and transportation trends. Analysis of future development was prepared on a regional basis, and in the postwar plan the urban area includes 700 square miles on a 40-mile axis hugging the Vistula.

Realization of the 1934 plan was impossible without municipal ownership of the land and a type of planned economy. Today these obstacles have been eliminated and the principal outlines of the long-range program have been officially approved.

Helene and Szymon Syrkus were leaders of the Polish Association for Housing Reform and the Workers' Cooperative Housing Association before the war, carried on planning activities during the war, even when imprisoned by the Germans, and have served in various capacities in the reconstruction of Warsaw and Poland. Szymon Syrkus is now a director of the National Ministry of Reconstruction and his wife is working with him. Matthew Nowicki formerly taught architecture in Warsaw and is now on the Headquarters' Planning Staff of the United Nations.
(Seymour Stillman, city planning student at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, edited the article.)

Since urbanism signifies social purpose, Warsaw's planners provide proper areas for the development of cultural, coöperative activities. The backbone of the scheme synthesizes both individual and collective needs; therefore, the requirements of the smallest unit — the family — and the larger community must be met by "cultivation of the social soil". While the "mass transportation" scale is essential for planned decentralization, the human scale — in which contact is restored with nature — calls for a net of pedestrian walks and residential roadways. In effect, the task is to make "Greenbelt and Broadway" a reality, accessible to everyone.

The neighborhood unit of approximately 100 acres, containing 5000 to 10,000 people, with a standard of 400 square feet per inhabitant, grants primary consideration and focal sites to the functions of education and child-care, self-government and community organization. The needs and desires of all age groups must be met. Varying from 30 to 40 persons per acre in the suburban neighborhood which contains single-family homes and garden apartments, through 100 people per acre in typical urban neighborhoods with 4 to 10-story apartment buildings, to 160 persons per acre in the centralized neighborhood with skyscraper dwellings, the basic unit consists of adequate space for community buildings and parks. The maximum radius from shopping, elementary school, and social and physical recreation is one-half mile. The neighborhood, bounded by through parkways set in open, buffer areas in which are located playfields, libraries, and civic structures, is further subdivided into four "pre-school nursery-totlot" units. In these, the walking distance is reduced to one-quarter of a mile, in keeping with the requirements of small children and mothers, and every detail is geared to the child. Thus, trees are dwarfed, foot-paths are miniature, and major street crossings are eliminated by the use of overpasses. In the neighborhood, two commons are provided for older people, with shade trees, benches, and a generally peaceful atmosphere severed from the noise and bustle of traffic.

In the 200 neighborhoods throughout the *City-Region*, only the facilities vital to a well-balanced residential district are supplied. Service industries and shopping facilities are placed in the buffer strips between the residences and the thoroughfare; they are accessible from the inside by the pedestrian, and from the outside by service cars and trucks. Parks within the neighborhoods penetrate into the green of the next-larger administrative area which harbors such facilities as the high school, hospital, and health center. The central community contains collective cultural facilities, such as an opera house, meeting squares, and university — all within thirty minutes of any point.

Basic industries are removed from the city proper and located on the right bank of the Vistula along a planned canal connecting them with the Bugonarew, and ultimately with the Baltic and Eastern Europe. With the prevailing winds from the west, the residential city is relieved of the smoke nuisance. However, a "western supply-industry district", which includes only the light, non-noxious industries, is located in the central city.

In the case of a capital, such as Warsaw, special activities distinguish it from the usual town. Thus, adequate sites must be provided for national and international economic, scientific, cultural, and political functions. That Warsaw demands larger areas and more space than it had in the past if it wants to provide a mirror for the rich technical and social achievements of the nation is the general feeling. With the era of real estate speculation over, planning must be invoked to fulfill human needs by the construction of human communities. An attempt is being made to follow the words of Poland's great poet, Adam Mickiewics, who insisted that "Workers' cities must be the work of the workers themselves."

The Chief Reconstruction Council of Warsaw, a *sui generis* organization in which a representative of the labor unions has as much to say about decisions as the Minister of Industry, has been the predominant civic agency for implementing the plan. Mr. Beirut, its President, at one of the meetings of the Council, said, "Even if the realization of Warsaw's plan will require a longer period, this plan must be the plan of a democratic Poland, where each citizen is an active one."

The methods of city planning are old; what is new is the matter of approach, for the future plan is conceived as a medium for the masses of peasants, laborers, and professionals, and their needs and wishes for a full life. A plan which doesn't express the will of the entire populace would be decadent and ill-conceived.

WARSAW STANDARDS OF NEIGHBORHOOD PLANNING

EACH NEIGHBORHOOD CONTAINS

1 Community Center
1 Shopping and Service Center
1 Elementary School
1 Playground
(These have a maximum service radius of one-half mile.)

2 "Commons"
(for old people)
(These have a maximum service radius of one-third mile.)

4 Nursery Schools
4 Kindergartens
(These have a maximum service radius of one-fourth mile.)

SOCIAL AREAS* CONSIST OF

Type of Area	Square Feet per Capita
Children's	111
Streets	54
Green Yards	85
Community Areas	90
Supply Areas (Shopping and Service)	60
All Social Areas	400

* All areas in neighborhood except ground area of dwellings.

CHILDREN'S AREAS

School Group	Age Group	Percent of Total Population	Square Feet per Child	Square Feet per Capita
Nursery School	0– 3	5.5	325	18
Kindergarten	3– 7	9.0	530	48
Elementary School	7–14	14.0	325	45
All Children	0–14	28.5	389	111

STREET AREAS*

Type of Street	Width Lineal Feet	Total Length Lineal Feet	Total Area Square Feet
Bordering Traffic†	90	6,000	270,000
Interior Collector	30	6,000	180,000
Interior Access	20	4,800	96,000
All Streets	—	16,800	546,000

* In neighborhood of 100 acres with 100 persons per acre.
† This type of street, 90 feet wide, separates two neighborhood areas and thus only one-half its width is apportioned to an area in the total area square feet column.

RESIDENTIAL FACILITIES IN NEIGHBORHOODS FOR 10,000 PERSONS

House Type by Number of Stories	Ground Area per Person in Square Feet*	Percent of Land Coverage	Persons per Acre	Total Area in Acres
1	540	26.00	80	120
3	447	10.50	98	102
4	435	8.05	100	100
6	423	5.54	103	97
20	407	1.72	107	93
20 (in city center)†	277	2.58	160	63
1 (in semi-rural areas)‡	1230	12.85	35	286
2 (in semi-rural areas)‡	1150	6.98	38	263

* The basic standard of 140 square feet gross floor per person in cities and of 160 square feet in semi-rural areas is divided by the number of stories in the house type and added to a standard of 400 square feet to derive the ground area per person in square feet, or $(400 + \frac{140}{x}; 400 + \frac{160}{x})$.
† The above formula is used except 270 is substituted for the standard of 400 square feet.
‡ The above formula is used except 1070 is substituted for the standard of 400 square feet.

RECONSTRUCTION: THE SUDAN

Abdel Saleh

THE Anglo-Egyptian Sudan is a country with deserts and some rocky mountains on the Red Sea shore, and swamps and forests in the south. The Nile River passes through from south to north; during the rainy season numerous streams carry flood waters to it. The Blue Nile, which comes from Abyssinia, joins the main river at Khartoum, which is the capital city.

Except for a few hills, the northern section is flat. Train passengers can see mirages all about them; one receives the impression of travelling on the surface of a calm ocean. The South is different, with abundant vegetation instead of deserts.

The weather is very hot during the summer, when heavy sand storms may occur day or night. The rainy season starts in July and lasts about three months in the North, almost all year in the South. The winter season is pleasant, with gentle breezes and a comfortable temperature.

Except for a small portion, the whole country depends on the rains for cultivation. The Nile has not deposited fertile soil as in Egypt, although with irrigation more land could be cultivated. However, gum trees grow in abundance and as a result the production of gum arabic is one of the main trades in the country.

The population is a mixture of various nationalities who have emigrated in the past from neighboring countries and from more distant places. They speak the Arabic language, and now consider themselves of Sudanese nationality. Many religions are represented, but most of the citizens are Moslems or Mohammedans. (Mohammedanism is the state religion.) The people follow their religion closely: men do not associate in public with the women who are still veiled. This separation extends even to the family, where husband and wife do not eat at the same table. The prayers of the people are constant reminders of the desirability of perfection for everyone.

Life in the Sudan is an outdoor existence. People sleep, sit, and eat outside as long as weather permits. The houses are usually one story high and surrounded by verandas. They are built of mud bricks or stones. In some parts of the country, where these materials are scarce and the rainfall great, the homes are built of straw. Each is a series of huts within an enclosure, also of straw.

Suburbs in most countries, generally contain high-income homes. In the Sudan, however, the high-income homes are located almost exclusively in the central parts of towns, and as one proceeds outward the income of the people decreases. The desert surrounds the towns and offers no great amenity; the center of the towns may be abutting on the Nile. There are no good roads to link these

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towns. During the rainy season, the roads cease to function, becoming quagmires and a menace for automobiles.

Town planning in the past was done by amateurs, who did their best to adopt the simplest design, the grid system. Unfortunately some neglected even the contours or the interrelations of the various parts of the town. The results were haphazard plans which in many cases would involve large sums of money for correction, money which the government cannot afford.

The only effort worth noting is that of Mr. W. H. McLean, a former municipal engineer, who redeveloped Khartoum. Khartoum extends two miles along the Nile running approximately east-west, and one mile to the south. His scheme included three main streets paralleling the embankment and three other major streets at right angles to the river, thus forming rectangles. These rectangles were further subdivided by diagonal streets connecting the intersections of the aveues. The diagonals were suggested by Lord Kitchener, former Governor-General of the Sudan, for military purposes. Although these are undoubtedly useful for communication between various sections, they form awkward building plots, which are especially inconvenient in the business quarter.

The Central Town Planning Board was founded by the Sudan Government early in 1947 to advise and aid local authorities and the local town planning committees. The Central Board consists of the following ex-officio members: representatives of the Civil Secretary, the deputy assistant to the Legal Secretary, the Town Planner, who is secretary of the Board, and the Director of the Surveys Department who is chairman. There are also seven elected members, representing various departments, such as the Commissioner of Lands, and the Public Works Department architectural section, or natives who act as representatives of the people, espousing their desires and traditions.

The Board encourages local planning committees to submit their general development plans for discussion, modification, approval and filing. Then when a proposal is submitted to the Board, the filed plans are available and form a basis for deciding on the proposal. The Board may also submit proposals to the local authorities.

Under the local government regulations, the Governor, subject to approval of the Central Town Planning Board, controls layout and development. Proposals are submitted either by or through the Governor, but must bear approval of the local township or municipal public health authority; the local councils must have been consulted; and the legality must be unquestionable.

There is no special budget for town planning, but if a scheme needs financial help, a request by the Governor is submitted to the Financial Secretary, who with the Governor-General's approval, grants the aid. In some cases loans are made to local authorities to enable them to proceed with planning.

For the purpose of regulations, land in the city of Khartoum is classified as follows:

a. Government lands which are reserved or developed for the use of various departments of the Government, such as offices, schools and open spaces. The buildings on such land are always constructed of specified building materials (brick, concrete, stone, or timber) which can stand for many years.

b. First class land on which the most expensive houses are built. These buildings are similar to those constructed by the government.

c. Second class land on which lower standard houses than under "b" are built. The building materials may be a mixture of mud walls and stones or bricks.

d. Third class land on which houses of mud are built.

e. Native lodging area, in which dried grass huts are built.

The Governor also supervises the layout of streets and the preparation of zoning schemes, subject always to existing private rights. Buildings must conform with the zoning classification of their sites, although one year's grace may be allowed a non-conforming structure. Shops and stores are prohibited in residential areas, factories in business areas and offensive trades in all sections.

A minimum land plot for home building is designated as 200 square meters, or about 2200 square feet. Its street frontage must be less than one-third the depth of the plot, but more than ten meters (32 feet). Further, buildings used for homes must not cover more than two-thirds of the plot, or if in a first class area, not more than one-half the area.

Areas not used for any other development may be set aside for native lodging. However, title to the land is maintained by the government, with only occupancy permission to the individual. The allottee pays a monthly fee, for which he obtains the privilege of building on this land, but he cannot transfer his interest. The government consequently maintains a strong control over the native; and upon infringement of regulations, the native may lose his rights.

RECONSTRUCTION: LATIN AMERICA

Francis Violich

BOMBS never fell on the cities of Latin America nor did invasion troops demolish homes, shops and factories. Yet conservative estimates show that about 25,000,000 houses are needed in Latin America to replace the extensive slums and blighted areas inhabited by low-income families in both urban and rural districts. These families live in dwellings that have accumulated through several centuries of unstable economic development. World War II tended to worsen conditions. Attempts to meet this need for replacement have been made in varying degrees in most of the countries, but a total of no more than 100,000 dwellings have been built under government sponsorship in recent years. Today low-cost dwellings are going up at a rate of something like 10,000 units per year as the result of public or semi-public housing activities in all of the twenty republics. Obviously, this rate should be greatly increased to meet the need effectively, in spite of the fact that some of the countries — Chile, Brazil and Panama — are building with public funds more dwellings in relation to population than is the United States at the present time.

Thus, housing stands as an important problem in Latin America, especially in view of the seriousness of the many economic, social and cultural problems to be found there. Though war damage was never done, these problems intensify the issue of housing.

The core of the housing problem in Latin America is the scarcity of sanitary, well-constructed, modern housing with rents in reasonable proportion to income. This scarcity has forced the use of overcrowded structures, dilapidated shacks and makeshift shanties which form acres of blighted districts and slums in many capitals and other cities. The dwellings in which lower income families are forced to live are characterized by faulty construction, overcrowding, lack of proper sanitation and water supply, unpleasant appearance and general dilapidation.

In urban centers the problem is especially acute because of the congestion of large numbers of persons in small areas. The slum type of dwelling to be found in Latin American cities is identified by various names: in Mexico and Central American they are called *casas de vecindad*; in Cuba, *solares*; in Colombia and Venezuela, *ranchos*; in Chile, Argentina and Uruguay, *conventillos*, and in Brazil, *corticos* and *villas*. All of these except the *ranchos* consist of one-room dwellings surrounding a courtyard where water-supply, wash tubs and toilets are located. As many as sixty or more families may share this same courtyard which is often a mere alleyway; water supply and sanitary facilities are generally inadequate for the number of persons. There is

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no clean, spacious area where children may play safely.

In many of the cities the *rancho* is to be found on the outskirts of the developed area, on hill tops or in ravines that could not otherwise be built upon. These one-room shacks and shanties have been built of waste materials in large numbers in conspicuous localities in Mexico City, Havana, Rio de Janeiro, Caracas, Lima, Santiago, Quito, Port-au-Prince and other cities. The districts in which the *ranchos* are located are generally without paved streets, sanitary sewers or water supply piped to the dwelling. In numerous instances, such as in Caracas, the squatters' villages have developed with the influx of workers seeking employment in the war-time building booms, still under way. These booms have produced large quantities of luxury apartments in Mexico City, Rio de Janeiro and other cities, but very little low- or medium-priced housing.

These conditions, which together comprise the acute housing shortage throughout Latin America, have their roots in certain economic and social factors which must be considered. One of the most important of these is the lack of a fully developed building industry in most countries. In relatively few countries are there adequate plants for producing the ample supply of bricks, concrete, wood, plumbing fixtures, tile, roofing, etc. needed to make possible large-scale housebuilding at reasonable cost. This means that the greater part of these materials must be imported and generally at high cost.

In certain countries, such as Argentina, Uruguay, Chile, Brazil and Colombia where there is a relatively well-developed building industry, housing can be supplied at low cost by private developers. Even these countries, however, are handicapped by a supply of building materials — steel, for example — insufficient to meet the demand for decent housing. In other countries the production of building materials as a self-supporting industry is merely beginning. Since the war, numerous plants have been established, but the tendency now is again to depend on materials from abroad.

One of the chief factors contributing to the housing problem is the limited economic market for sale or rent of housing, due to the low income of the population. Workers in some countries are required to pay from one-third to one-half or more of their budget for hygienic, sanitary housing. For example, in Venezuela an elevator operator who earns 100 bolivares per month must pay 40 bolivares for a room at some distance from his employment. A more central location would cost 60 bolivares. Housing of a very inferior character can be found in most Latin American cities at a low rental, proportionate to the low incomes, and in such dwellings most of the lower-income families must live, with the resultant general lowering of standards of living. Wartime scarcities have continued in many centers, along with inflationary rents and land values.

Where monthly payments on a well-built house amount to more than one-third of the family income, it is not feasible for large groups of the working population to maintain payments on homes without making dangerous sacrifices in nutrition, clothing, education and other necessities. In order to stimulate the production of housing in greater quantities, average incomes must be increased and the cost of housing reduced. This action will insure a more widespread housing construction industry and a greater market for sale and rental of homes.

An integral part of the problem is the lack of adequate statistical data on the extent of the slum and substandard dwellings. Some of the larger municipalities have taken censuses of building conditions but rarely has this material been complete or kept up-to-date. Several of the countries, notably Venezuela and Colombia, have included a considerable number of items on housing in the national census, but in no case has a complete and detailed national housing census been made yet. Such data are of prime importance to the development of low-cost housing programs in Latin America. Before a sound program can be laid out and a realistic campaign made, the facts of housing must first be known.

In the field of urban development in general, the war years with their building booms have heaped increasing problems on the basic ones of sub-standard living conditions. Inflated land values in the more populous areas are caused by the over-concentration of building in small areas. This results in a mass transit problem, for the Latin Americans have to go to work like anyone else. Today, their formerly plaza-spotted cities ringed with boulevards are coming more and more to resemble the North American prototype. Pint-sized skyscrapers are rising in Caracas about the 100-year-old Plaza Bolivar, sinking the once sunny and restful green space into a canyon of dark, gloomy shade. The quiet water front of Rio de Janeiro is turning into a speedway for the autos and busses necessary to carry people from their congested living areas to their congested working areas. Land in too many Latin American cities is being considered as a source of speculation in spite of the decided traditional attitude on the part of the economic and political leaders of those countries to create imaginative city projects designed to improve living rather than material values. The Latin American cities lack, as we do, the acceptance of an over-all planning process

essential to the solution of the housing problem along with those of traffic, land-use and healthful population distribution.

In spite of the war's intensification of the extensive problem of housing in Latin America, the various countries have found and are seeking new solutions, though many of these are limited in scope. In most countries the problem is recognized and in many legislation and building programs have been carried on for many years. As far back as 1910, Argentina had initiated a low-cost housing program on a small scale in Buenos Aires. Uruguay built public-housing projects twenty-five years ago in Montevideo. Chile's first housing law was passed in 1906 and the first housing project opened in 1911. These early attempts at low cost housing were directed generally toward construction of dwellings for sale or toward the loan of money at low interest rates for construction by private individuals. Today, and especially since the war, most of the countries have found that direct construction by the government or by municipalities for rent rather than for sale is the most effective manner of supplying low-cost housing on a large scale. In several instances housing is built directly by the governments through national low-cost housing agencies. This has been the case in Argentina, Uruguay, Peru. In others, social security funds have been used, as in Chile, Brazil, Ecuador and Bolivia. In some instances municipalities, such as Medellín, Colombia, Mexico City, and Rio de Janeiro, have built housing projects on their own initiative. Although government-built housing tends to be confined to the capitals, this has been changing in recent years and a more comprehensive view is being taken. Following is a brief statement of housing accomplishments and methods used in the various countries, placed in geographical groups:

Mexico is at present only beginning a national housing policy and program. Only a few dwellings have been built for workers in the capital, while an enormous amount of high-priced speculative building has taken place. The recently formed Banco de Fomento de la Habitación is in the process of formulating a housing program. There is a crying need for a national housing law on a permanent basis.

In Central America, Guatemala has built several low-rent projects in the capital city; new post-war legislation will expand the program. Costa Rica has an agency which is charged with construction of workers' housing. El Salvador, Honduras and Nicaragua have very limited programs or none at all. However, Panama has undertaken a new program on a broad scale through the recently established Banco de Urbanización, founded in August 1944, which to date has built a total of about 1000 dwellings and has some 2000 more planned. The Banco made use of U. S. housing technicians serving in the Canal Zone during the war.

In the Caribbean area, Cuba has no public housing program but is at present developing a housing law under the auspices of the Ministry of Labor. Santo Domingo has a few projects built in the last few years, but Haiti has no housing program at all, though one is badly needed.

On the South American continent, Venezuela has built some workers' housing through the Banco Obrero, a semi-public, autonomous financial institution set up in 1927 to build low-cost housing and provide loans to individuals for that purpose. Since the establishment of an active building program in 1938, 1600 dwellings have been built, including El Silencio constructed during the war at a cost of $19,000,000. During the next ten years, 40,000 units are planned for various parts of the country. Colombia's housing program is not organized on a national basis, but projects have been built by the municipal governments of Bogatá, Medellín, Baranquilla and others. Housing work there is now concentrated in the Instituto de Crédito Territorial.

Ecuador's public housing work is being done by the social security agencies for private and public employees. Projects totaling about 1000 dwellings have been built in Quito and Guayaquil. Peru has maintained a housing agency in the Ministry of Development and has built housing in connection with earthquake destruction chiefly in the Lima-Callao area. However, a new program has recently been organized under the housing law passed this year. In addition to this, the government is guaranteeing bonds purchased by municipalities for low-cost housing construction under a decree passed in 1946. In Bolivia, housing has been built on a limited scale by the social security agency.

Chile has one of the most advanced housing programs. The work is centered in the Caja de Habitación which corresponds to the federal housing agency of the United States. Funds come from a variety of sources including the national budget, taxes on copper, coal and other industries. Since its re-organization in 1939, a total of about 12,000 dwellings have been built and some 5000 are now under way. This is one of the most successful housing programs in Latin America and one of the most active at the present time. Argentina has been building workers' housing, chiefly in Buenos Aires, over a period of the last ten years through the offices of a national housing agency similar to that of Chile. This agency is now functioning as a part of the Ministry of Labor. Under Uruguay's housing program, several thousand houses have been built, chiefly in

and around Montevideo. Paraguay has practically no housing program at all.

Brazil has built about 10,000 dwellings during the past decade through the use of social security funds. Five agencies representing various types of workers' groups have their own housing departments. Chief among these is the IAFC (Instituto Industriarios) which has built the largest amount of housing.

In almost all of the Latin American cities, city planning programs exist in varying degrees of effectiveness. In few of them however, is the redevelopment of sub-standard housing areas integrated into a rational over-all planning process. Uruguay is perhaps an outstanding example of development of these techniques. There, a City Planning Department well-staffed with technicians trained in the school of architecture and planning has prepared and keeps up to date a master plan rigidly enforced. One official of the city of Montevideo, the capital, was recently sent to England by his Government to study new planning techniques now being developed there that may be applied in Uruguay. Venezuela has established since the first of 1947 a new Institute of Urbanism within the Ministry of Public Works. This Institute is to prepare plans for all the fast-growing urban regions, most important of which is the Caracas area. Venezuela offers perhaps the best example in Latin America of planning and housing programs which are being integrated. In many cities, such as Rio de Janeiro, La Paz, Lima, Bogotá, Mexico City and others, individual projects of boulevard construction, grouping of public buildings, etc. are being planned and carried forward. In too few cities, however, is the process of overall planning being established as an integral part of urban growth.

This brief survey of the status of housing in the various republics indicates the wide discrepancy between what has been done to meet the need and the actual need itself. The bridging of the gap requires a program involving many kinds of action.

Whether or not private enterprise can do the job alone in Latin America is a question. It has not been able to do it alone even in the United States, where the building industry is relatively well-developed. It appears that low-cost housing is going to be public housing. In Latin America, where for the most part the building industry is in its infancy, many years will elapse before it can handle the responsibility of supplying low-cost housing in large quantities through such new techniques as pre-fabrication. If the housing problem is to be solved, government activities in the field of housing must be increased as a normal phase of national administrative activity. The various governments in Latin America can take steps toward consolidation of effort and experience from one country to another for mutual aid and greater standardization of housing legislation and techniques. Housing information needs to be put into greater circulation so that the various countries may remain in closer contact. These steps can best be taken by the establishment of better-financed and planned programs of low-cost housing. Publications, conferences, citizen movements should be encouraged through government activity in the field of housing and greater public support thus aroused. In the smaller countries, greater initiative by the various states or regions is essential.

Other types of action of a broader economic and social nature will contribute directly toward the increased construction of low-cost dwellings designed to meet modern needs. The building industries in all countries will have to be expanded in proportion to the need for dwellings, because dependence on high-cost, imported building materials cannot continue. At the same time, costs of construction should be reduced by introduction of new techniques of mass production or pre-fabrication. These two savings will result in a lower purchase price or rental fee, making it possible for larger numbers of families to occupy new dwellings.

Along with these economy measures, wages generally need to be increased to widen the market of consumers in a financial position permitting purchase or rental of new dwellings. Many countries realize the importance of expanding local markets through payment of adequate wages. Meanwhile, the same public which is to find a new way of life in modern dwellings must be educated in the use of the structures and should in turn participate in both the programming and maintenance of the communities. Such social programs have been adapted with success in several countries, notably Chile and Brazil and there is a wide sense of "belonging" to these new communities on the part of the inhabitants. Much can be done in the field of cooperative housing, and in a number of the countries, Colombia, Argentina and others, consumers' organizations have built dwelling units for the use of their members. The initiative of labor organizations can assist in promoting low-cost housing programs.

Progress in planning of a comprehensive nature on various levels of government is essential to the effective solution of the housing problem. Resources planning on the national level is needed in Latin America to establish the basic policy toward all physical and economic development. The regional, or in some cases state, level should have its planning machinery; in Latin America the TVA type organization is perfectly

adaptable to development needs. And locally, in the metropolitan regions and smaller cities, planning needs to be injected on a stronger base than at present as a normal phase of government and development.

In the long run only the Latin Americans can solve the problems of that part of the Hemisphere. Yet, they want to learn from us and they are disappointed when they come to our country and see the limited extent to which we are rebuilding our cities and employing our technical ability to solve the great housing problem. They are avid to learn of our methods and desirous of technical assistance. We cannot carry on a Good Neighbor Policy and at the same time ignore the question of housing and its affiliated problems. The conflict and turmoil found in Latin America is not to be put down with arms and prophetic speeches. These sources of violence do not come out of thin air, they come when social injustices, substandard living and widespread slums are prevalent in a potentially prosperous continent.

According to the U. S. Department of Commerce over half ($273,000,000) of the 1946 income from U. S. investments in foreign countries came from Latin American sources — especially from Venezuela, Cuba, Brazil and Mexico.

Economic imperialism has held back like a dead hand modern industrial development and technical advance in Latin America, and these are the keys to decent living standards. Our responsibility as professed leaders in democracy must be to lift away that dead hand and nurture the forces of growth and renewal — education for sound minds, health and food for sound bodies, houses for improved family life. In short, wholesome participation in the benefits of an expanding world, progress on a positive, aggressive scale. In a rapidly changing world, as long as we gear ourselves to the past and our own domestic and commercial welfare, we are lost. Our future lies with the little people of the *conventillos* and the *ranchos*, or it lies nowhere — certainly not with a decaying economy based on exploitation and the denial of the fruits of twentieth century techniques to two-thirds of a people.

A great portion of the responsibility for reconstruction of the out-moded portions of our cities in the Americas — both North and South — lies with the technicians and the students of urban development who are in a position to express to officials and to the people alike the possibilities for creating urban communities worthy of the twentieth century.

RECONSTRUCTION: CANADA

Fred Lasserre

THE veteran returning to his wife or to his family in Canada has found much the same overcrowding and urban blight that exist in the United States. To obtain privacy for his family life he has "taken over" and "squatted" in barracks, in dormitories, in unused residences and stores, and in large hotels. He has made his home in trailers, railway cars, abandoned factories and other buildings.

The veteran has also brought back with him memories of the mature and planned quality of European cities and of their architecture. He has been shocked to see the wasteful chaos and sordid squalor of our so called "New World" towns and cities. He has felt that opportunities were being lost, that a beautiful landscape was being blighted; he has felt that with planning we might do something to avoid an extension of the blight and to regenerate what we already have. He has given voice to his feelings; an opening has been made for citizen participation in community planning.

The Minister of Reconstruction and Supply, Mr. C. D. Howe, has stated that Canada should build nearly half a million houses during the next five years. A government advisory committee has estimated that slightly over 600,000 dwelling units are required to cover the backlog of housing needs (actual shortage and replacement of substandard accommodations). In addition there is an annual need for from 50,000 to 60,000 new dwelling units.

Housing construction has in no way approached the annual figure required by the minimum estimate. Mr. Howe's department gives us a figure of 48,599 dwelling units for 1946 and of 63,637 for 1947. The high cost of construction as well as the continued shortage of materials is making the figure for 1947 lag behind the goal. At this rate, in five years we shall build only about 350,000 dwellings.

In spite of the above official figures we have two significant factors which color the Canadian housing picture. In the words of a Toronto real estate agent, "The shortage is increasing year by year and we're not even keeping up with the normal annual population increase, much less reducing the 15-year backlog in building homes." He also expressed the concern which is general throughout this country and which was typified at the annual meeting of mayors and reeves of municipalities where housing was considered Canada's No. 1 problem, . . . "the small wage-earner, the greater part of Canada's working population, has little chance to obtain a new home at today's prices." Shortages and costs are still the increasing concern of the government's Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation which

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handles Canada's housing problems for the Department of Reconstruction and Supply.

Over 60 percent of the households in Canada cannot afford to pay over $25 a month for rent. In spite of this condition no subsidized housing has been undertaken by the government which is making every effort to keep its hands clean of this "dangerous" type of government "participation." To avoid what is a most necessary "participation" it has, through the Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation, attempted almost every other conceivable scheme of governmental assistance to home builders.

Two out of every five dwellings built in 1946 obtained government assistance under one or more of the public programs summarized as follows:

I. *National Housing Act, 1944 and 1946*

A. Housing for Home Owners: Part I of the National Housing Act provides that the Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation may enter into contracts with approved lending institutions to make joint loans and to arrange certain guarantees by the Dominion against losses under four different plans designed to stimulate housing for home ownership: (1) loans to owner-occupiers, (2) loans to builders who intend to sell to owner-occupiers, (3) loans to builders who agree to sell to veteran owner-occupiers at a price fixed at a moderate level by Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation — a plan known as the "Integrated Housing Plan", and (4) loans to cooperatives for owner occupancy.

B. Housing for Rental Purposes: Part II of the National Housing Act provides that the Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation may enter into contracts with approved lending institutions to make joint loans, to arrange certain guarantees by the Dominion against losses, and to recommend grants designed to encourage the construction of rental housing. Seven plans are under way or contemplated: (1) loans to owners of rental property, (2) loans to builders who intend to sell rental property to prospective owners, (3) loans to builders who agree to sell rental properties at a price fixed at a moderate level by Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation, with priority being given to veterans (the multiple dwelling version of the "Integrated Housing Plan"), (4) loans to limited-dividend corporations for low-rental housing purposes, including a special scheme operated by Housing Enterprises of Canada, Limited, an institutional holding company owned by various life insurance companies, (5) loans for rental premises to borrowers enganged in mining, lumbering, logging or fishing, (6) guarantees to life insurance companies for approved rental projects involving the direct investment of their funds, and (7) grants-in-aid by the Minister for slum clearance projects.

C. Home Extension Loans: Loan guarantees for home extensions are provided under Part IV of the National Housing Act. Operations under this section commenced on April 1st, 1946, with proclamation of this section. Home extension under this section usually provides one or more new dwelling units.

It is worth saying a word about the government's pet baby born amidst much fanfare two years ago, Housing Enterprises, Limited. Long ago the government admitted, and still does, that there is no such thing as low-cost or low-rental housing. So it bludgeoned the insurance companies, by threats and promises, into establishing the above company to build moderate-rental accommodations. This company has built the largest number of dwellings under any of the government's lending schemes. Now Housing Enterprises has thrown in the sponge. Its whole program for 1947 has been abandoned because the rents it charged for minimum accommodation at $45.00 to $65.00 were not high enough to cover construction costs and adequate operating returns. Even "moderate-rental" accommodations have proved impossible to build under the present economy.

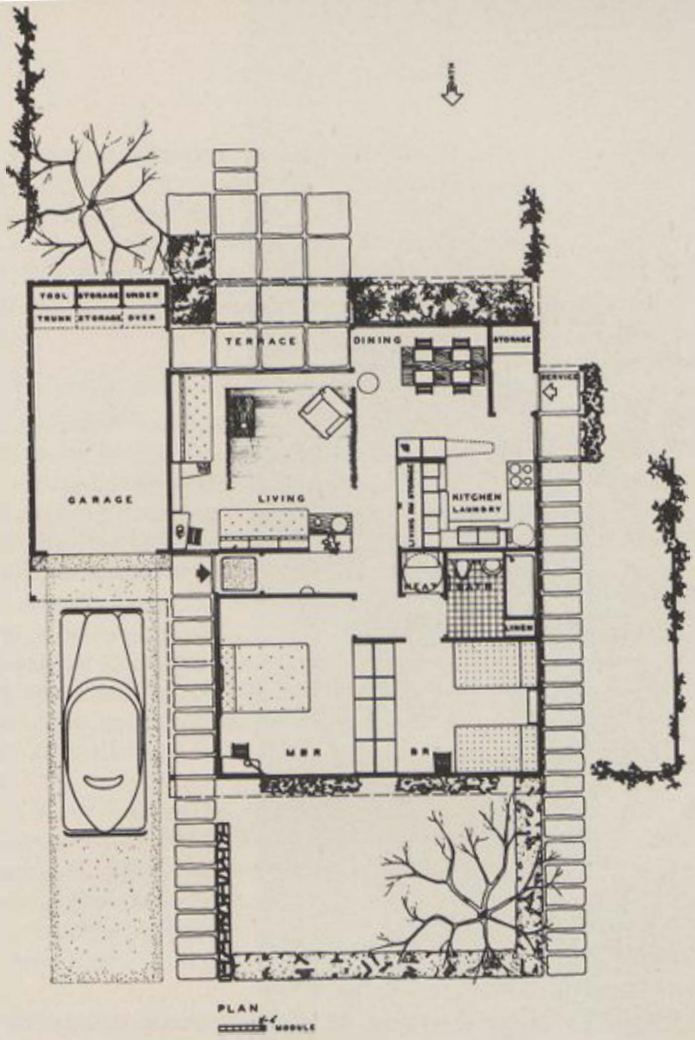
The Conservative-Liberal coalition paper, the *Vancouver Sun*, stated editorially, commenting on this collapse: "Semi-luxury housing remains, then, as the only type available — luxurious in the sense of price category. And when a necessity becomes a luxury, both the government and the building industry had better be warned that the public will not tolerate a condition of that kind for long.

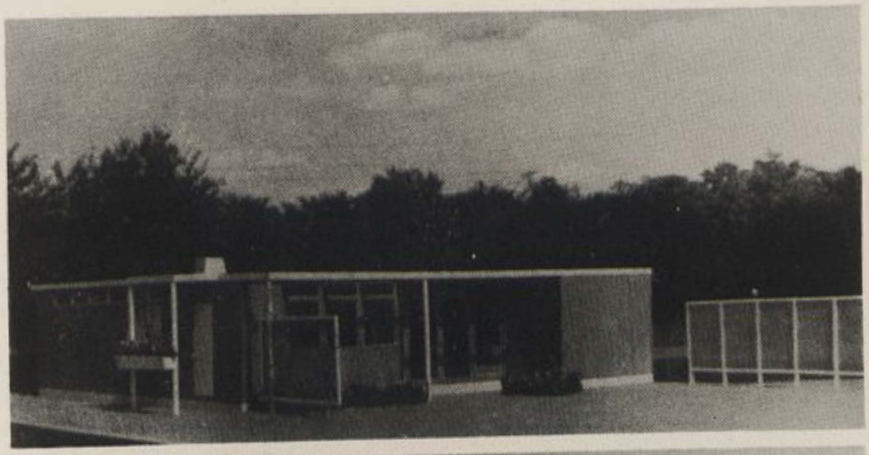
"If the industry can't get its prices down within reach of the great majority of its potential customers, it will have to go out of business as soon as it exhausts its upper-crust market. The necessity for action is becoming more critical.

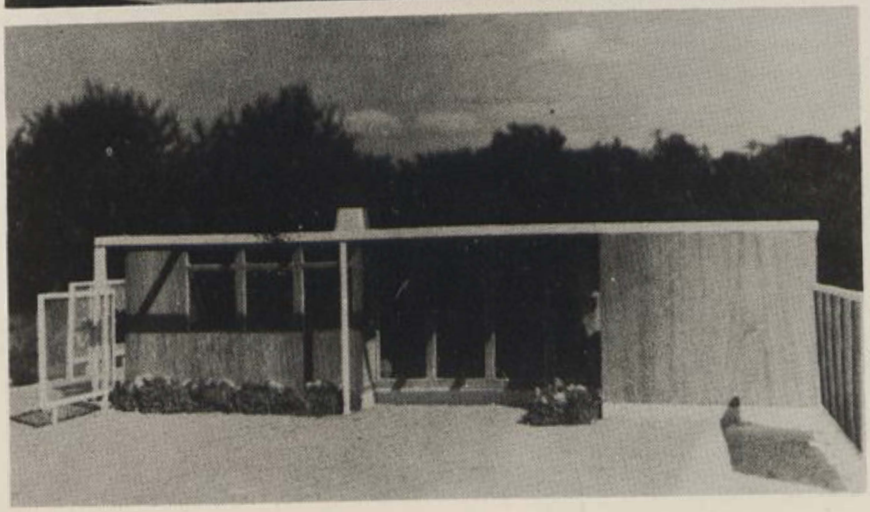
"Demand for government moves to meet the shortcomings of the free-enterprise system is also growing louder with the passing months. Canadians in this enlightened age simply refuse to believe that an adequate peacetime standard of housing is beyond the capacity of a nation which set production records in wartime. They are apt to insist on changing either the government or the system — or both."

II. *Veterans' Land Act, 1942*

Housing operations under the Veterans' Land Act are rural and semi-rural in nature. The legislation provides financial assistance to veterans intending to engage in farming as a full-time occupation or in part-time farming coupled with industrial, commercial, or other employment from







Demonstration model house constructed from prefabricated panel system developed at the National Research Council, Ottawa; D. C. Simpson, Architect.

Top: *Interior court, El Silencio, a recent housing project in Caracas, Venezuela, built by the Workers' Bank.*

Bottom: *One of three apartment buildings for workers in Antofogasta, Chile, built by Workers' Social Security Agency.*

which the veteran derives his principal cash income. Six plans are currently in operation, but house-building activity has been highest in the first two: A. subdivision projects, B. small holdings, C. full-time farming, D. commercial fishing, E. provincial lands, and F. grants to Indian veterans.

III. *Canadian Farm Loan Act, 1927*

The Canadian Farm Loan Act was enacted by Parliament in 1927 to meet the demand for improved agricultural credit facilities in long-term mortgages. This legislation, as amended, has been administered by the Canadian Farm Loan Board, commencing in January 1929. Loans may be made to farmers for the purpose of paying debts, purchasing livestock and farm equipment, making farm improvements, erecting new buildings, repairing buildings, providing for the expense of farm operation, and assisting in the purchase of additional farm land.

IV. *Farm Improvement Loans Act, 1944*

In August, 1944, The Farm Improvement Loans Act, 1944, was enacted to provide intermediate and short-term credit to farmers for the improvement and development of farms and living conditions on farms.

V. *Emergency Shelter Regulations*

In January 1946, administration of the Emergency Shelter Order was transferred from the Wartime Prices and Trade Board to the Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation. For the most part, these shelter units were provided by Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation in cooperation with municipalities and universities by conversion of barracks and other available buildings.

These units, accounting for about twelve percent of the new dwellings in 1946, can hardly, legally and morally, be called "new". Where once twelve soldiers lived, one family now lives. A house condemned as unfit for human habitation has been made "livable".

VI. *Wartime Housing Limited*

Construction activity during 1946 of the Crown company, Wartime Housing, Limited, returned to the peak level attained during 1942 and 1943, at which time its main function was to provide housing accommodation for workers in those parts of Canada where war industries had created a serious housing shortage. Current operations of the company are directed towards the construction of low-rental homes for veterans.

This company is probably the brightest spot in the whole housing picture. It accounted for eleven percent of dwellings built in 1946. Due to economies arising out of mass production and advanced building techniques and the company's ability to obtain land from municipalities for one dollar, rentals have been kept in the range of twenty-two to thirty-five dollars a month for well-built and adequate two- to four-bedroom accommodations. Also, attempts have been made to develop housing on a community basis, including communal facilities and amenities.

Official housing surveys being conducted by the government in Toronto and Vancouver will be valuable in establishing barometers and standards for slum clearance, re-housing, urban rehabilitation and community planning. A similar survey of rural housing is being conducted in the Prairie Provinces and one is planned for British Columbia. Considerable research has been carried out in the National Research Council on new building materials and on methods of construction. Special emphasis has been given to the construction and analysis of systems of prefabrication particularly that of the three-foot-four-inch modular panel type. A very good jointing system has been developed by the Council. Unfortunately the Government is withholding the very favorable results of tests on full-scale models; one suspects pressure-group interests.

Planning legislation of one form or another has been passed in all Canadian provinces. This legislation is well written, broad in scope, very detailed in its coverage—and impotent. Its impotence arises from the fact that foreign legislation was literally transplanted to Canada without translating it into the peculiarities of the Canadian legal pattern.

In the last three years city after city prepared, or had prepared for it, master plans, zoning ordinances and model planning by-laws. As far as the author knows, almost all of the material prepared is gathering dust.

Most of the city plans are prepared by consultants — individuals or firms — who are brought in to "do a job". Vancouver, the first city in Canada to have a comprehensive town plan, employed American consultants, Harland Bartholomew and Associates. All other cities have employed Canadian firms to do the work for them, or in a few cases have used their own planning commissions. The notable exception is Ottawa which has obtained the services of the French *urbaniste* Jacques Greber, to advise it on the planning of the capital and the Federal District. Town Planning Consultants, Limited, with its head office in Toronto, has prepared plans for a number of cities and is the best known firm of Canadian town planners. Its managing director, Dr. E. G. Faludi, was a well-known European architect and planner before the war. In a few cases cities already having plans have revised

these in terms of new concepts of planning and to satisfy new needs. These revised plans, seem to be the ones which are gathering the least dust. They are being referred to fairly conscientiously in spite of their over-emphasis on traffic and lack of attention to "living," "housing" and "community" requirements.

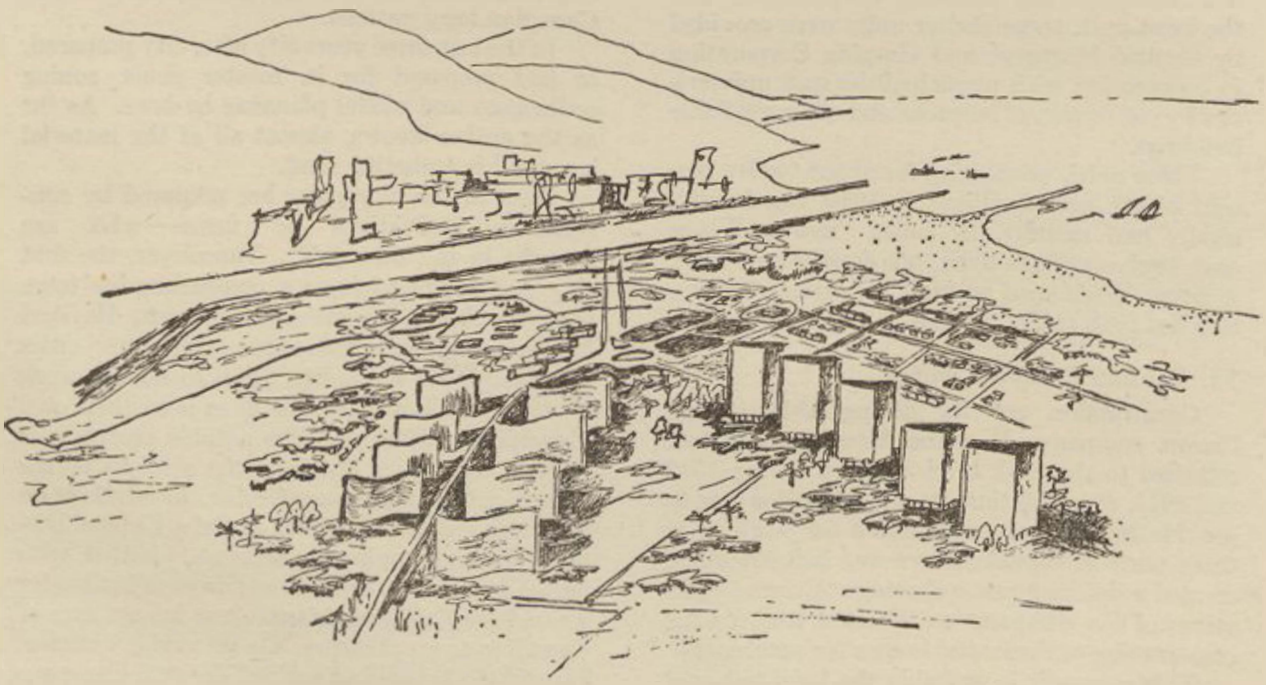
In Ontario this year, a number of amendments to the Planning and Development Act of 1946 makes the act a powerful weapon for planning both within and outside the municipalities. The minister has practically dictatorial powers in the enforcement of declared intentions for areas outside organized municipalities.

In British Columbia an amendment to the Town Planning Act makes it possible for the Government to go into any unorganized territory, and (a) prescribe principles of subdivision, (b) control land with respect to construction thereon, (c) restrict land use, (d) lay out services. Besides this most interesting and encouraging legislation the government has been acting in a consulting capacity by preparing plans and zoning by-laws for any small municipality desiring this service. It is to the provincial government's credit that it has a staff of far-sighted and progressive planners which is rendering a real service to the municipalities.

Other provinces are similarly revising their planning legislation. The Province of Saskatchewan, with a socialist Government, has passed an act which gives the municipalities the most extensive powers of expropriation of any of the provinces.

The difficulties of making town plans effective resulted in a conference sponsored by the Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation of the Department of Reconstruction and Supply, to which all those interested in planning were invited to attend. Out of this conference arose an organization known as the Community Planning Association of Canada. It is a self-governing body "to foster public understanding of, and participation in, community planning in Canada". Through it the citizen, it is hoped, will have a closer link with the planning ideas and processes which affect his environment. Branches have been formed in all the provinces. Active groups in the major cities make this one of North America's most healthy vehicles for democratizing the planning process. Funds are made available to the organization from the government. The central office at Ottawa is a clearing house for all ideas and developments in the field of planning from community to regional efforts. This information is relayed throughout the country by the Association's eye-catching publication *Layout for Living*. The efforts being made in the field of planning indicate the growing consciousness of the need to plan in the Canadian citizen and in his government.

Bizerte. Proposed new section, Zarzouna, in foreground.



Richard C. Reese

RECONSTRUCTION: BIZERTE

P. A. Emery

ON the twelfth of May 1943, Bizerte was liberated by Allied troops. Eight days later the last German soldiers ceased fighting on African soil. Six months of war had caused damage of more than twenty billion francs in Tunisia alone. This country, which was very poor even before the war, had to undertake reconstruction under the most difficult conditions. Five hundred thousand soldiers were still on her soil, camped within her boundaries, preparing for the invasions of Sicily, Corsica and Italy. Two hundred and fifty thousand German and Italian prisoners remained. Most of the communications facilities had been destroyed. The ports were unusable. The army had prior claims on the various building materials. Specialized building workers, almost wholly Italians, were required for urgent military construction. The power plants had been almost entirely ruined and produced only small amounts of current. Nearly all the fields were mined.

In July the government of Tunis created a planning and architectural service attached to the general secretariat of the government. This service, at first very small, had the following objectives:

a. To make an inventory of the damage sustained by real property,

b. To list all available materials and to direct their distribution to stimulate the resumption and development of the manufacture of building materials,

c. To draw up plans for the reconstruction of all the destroyed towns and villages and to provide master plans — as well as a regional plan — for all the communities in Tunisia,

d. To control private building,

e. To furnish plans for, and to control the construction of all public buildings.

This service also had the right to review the erection of all architectural work that was under the jurisdictions of the military administration, but had no control of allocation of labor.

This was the first time in France that such wide powers had been granted to a planning body.

A young architect, Bernard Zehrfuss, 33, Grand Prix de Rome medallist, was named chief architect and put in charge. He proceeded to gather around him whatever young and spirited architects happened to be in North Africa at that time. The job was of particular interest because this tremendous task was entrusted to graduates of an official school, the Beaux-Arts, whose faculty had always fought against the progress in France of theories of modern architecture and city planning. Many of these young men had never had the opportunity of dealing with problems of city planning. I shall attempt here only to analyze the project for the reconstruction of

P. A. Emery, a French architect-city planner, was associated with Le Corbusier for many years. He worked on the plan for Bizerte, was a member of the French Reconstruction Mission visiting this country during the war, and is now city planner of Algiers.

Bizerte, one of the most interesting of the problems, and the various vicissitudes with which this project was faced.

Originally, Bizerte was a small Arab town which had grown up around a natural harbor used by the fishermen of the African coast and by the Sicilians. At the end of the nineteenth century, a channel connecting the sea and the lake of Bizerte was dug, which made this the most important French naval installation in the Mediterranean. As a result, a European town developed to the west of the channel (between the latter and the Arab town) on the level fill resulting from tne construction of the channel. Just before the war Bizerte was a city of 35,000, living on the commerce of the port and on the major war industry and arsenal of Sidi Abdallah. Moreover, it was an administrative center and Tunisian naval headquarters.

By the time it was liberated, this city had been 77 percent destroyed. The first jobs to be undertaken were mine clearance, clearing of the ruins, repairs to the roads and to the port. The ruins were cleared by makeshift means. Mechanical equipment was lacking, and so it was necessary to do such work by hand and mule cart.

Immediately the question arose, "How shall the city be reconstructed?" Climatic conditions were not excellent. The city, situated at sea level, did not receive the fresh breezes of the open ocean. Its site was further limited by the port and by the channel to the north and east respectively, by swampy lowlands to the northwest beyond the Arab town, and to the south and west by the fortified hills defending the port. In addition the sewer system, being too near sea-level, was defective. Under these conditions, should the city be rebuilt on its old site?

The problem of temporary housing for the displaced inhabitants did not then arise. During the particularly heavy bombings almost all the townspeople had fled and had taken refuge in dwellings in the surrounding countryside.

On the other side of the channel stretched a vast space situated between the ocean and the lake. From the bank of the channel, the land sloped gradually from olive groves to wooded hills covered with forests of pine overlooking one of the most magnificent beaches in the region. A proposal to rebuild the city on this site was quickly made by the city planning service and adopted by the government. This proposal offered the enormous advantage of shortening, by some forty kilometers, the road and railway distance from Bizerte to Tunis. Previously both railroad and highway had been forced to detour around the lake.

The experience was exhilarating. For the first time in France it would be possible to plan an entirely new city according to the most recently accepted city planning principles: differentiation of the functions of the city, creation of unified neighborhoods according to type of dwelling, separation of automobile and pedestrian traffic, creation of arteries for highspeed traffic, strict regulations governing orientation and construction of houses, and structural and architectural control. Bizerte was to be the first of the garden cities of French reconstruction.

The preservation of the existing town, which could not reasonably be abandoned completely and where many of the dwellings and public buildings could be, to a greater or lesser degree, temporarily repaired, posed problems difficult to solve. There was the problem of connecting the two parts of the city with rapid transit facilities. The new city could not be completed for several years. Until the time when a considerable number of houses could be built in the new city and when the principal offices could be set up in it, the center of life in Bizerte would remain in the old town.

Following approval of the first sketches which defined the outlines of the structure of the new city, the Tunisian government bought, through eminent domain proceedings, the whole of the land allocated for the construction of the city.

During two years of studies, the plan for the city was constantly improved and reviewed, but the principles which were its foundation did not change.

The zoning was prescribed as follows:

In Old Bizerte:

a. The little-damaged Moslem city,

b. An exclusively military zone with barracks and fortifications, on the hills west of the city,

c. An industrial area on the banks of the channel,

d. A business area at the center of the old town, occupying those structures capable of restoration,

e. A port zone.

In the new Bizerte Zarzouna:

a. A zone reserved for the naval command and its branches, offices, the admiralty, quarters for officers and men, hotel, club, etc., situated at the top of the hill,

b. A civil administration zone for the prefecture, civil control, justice, postal service, churches, etc., situated, along with the commercial and social foci, at the center of the city,

c. A zone of single-family dwellings destined for the rehousing of the displaced population, for the temporary housing of building workers and, ultimately (after alteration), for the working population of the industrial plants,

d. A zone of single-family dwellings and estates, situated on the slopes south of the beach, between it and the center of the city,

e. A zone of high apartments surrounded by gardens, enjoying both the view of the sea to the north and of the lake to the south,

f. A railroad zone, with stations, depots, yards, etc.,

g. A port zone, under the naval command,

h. An industrial zone,

i. Beaches, bathing and tourist installations, forest reserve, parks, groves and gardens in a recreation zone,

j. Hospitals, sanatoria (preventoria), clinics, etc., in a regional public health zone intended to draw primarily from outside the city,

k. A protective belt, to preserve and to allow for the extension of the existing Moslem town, located in the suburban area,

l. A truck gardening belt to provide for future suburban expansion.

Rapid communication was assured by two parkways joining the main Tunisian highway, one to the north of the city, toward the beach, the other to the south. Roads branch off from these parkways which distribute traffic into the various parts of the city.

This plan was not undertaken without encountering great difficulties, some arising from the supply situation (lack of materials and labor) which prevented a rapid start on the work, others because of psychological factors. A large part of the population had received permission to reenter the old town during the summer of 1944. The dwellings were repaired more or less well and the inhabitants lived there in somewhat precarious circumstances — a condition, however, to which they quickly accustomed themselves. They claimed the war-damage payments which would have allowed them to repair their houses permanently. Finally, there were heavy investments in the urban and industrial land of the old town and many people did not look favorably on such a sweeping planning project, from which land speculation was entirely excluded. It was, of course, necessary to hold meetings and conferences, to use much persuasion to overcome an always resurgent resistance. And, above all, faith and enthusiasm, abetted by the enlightened aid of the Resident and Secretary General of the government, were necessary for the planning group to overcome the obstacles.

What are, then, the chances at this moment for the success of the operation? They depend almost entirely on the construction of the naval command's buildings and of those of the administrative offices. The principal reasons for the existence of Bizerte, up to the present, at least, has been the presence of the naval commander, the military port and allied industries. Once these naval buildings are constructed — and they are in the process of construction — and after the installation of other administrative offices, the population will have every interest in moving to the new city, while still temporarily keeping their work in the old. In the last analysis, one important factor which will act in favor of the development of Bizerte Zarzouna is the particularly favorable location of its beach and the beauty of the site. Well equipped, provided with all the comforts of modern beach resorts, this beach can quickly become one of the most beautiful in the Mediterranean and the favorite summer resort of the inhabitants of Tunis.

But the battle will not be entirely won until the bridge or tunnel is built connecting no longer two separate cities, but the two halves of the same city.

Our American colleagues, accustomed during the war to seeing cities of 45,000 people rise from the ground in a few months, may be surprised by these reservations and by what they may call a certain timidity. But an operation as delicate as the transfer of an existing city without the possibility of rapid action or of profiting from the psychological shock of war on a displaced population demands great prudence and much discernment.

Administrative, legal and financial questions relating to the status of the land of the new city and of the property of the citizens raised complex problems and it is not certain that the new and daring solutions proposed to the administration, which would help to accelerate the work by interesting private initiative, will be immediately understood and adopted either by the administration or by public opinion unfamiliar with the mechanism of city planning.

Despite all difficulties, Bizerte Zarzouna exists. An embryonic community provided with all its equipment has been built and is inhabited. The remainder is a vast construction site which augurs favorably for the future.

RECONSTRUCTION: TOKYO

Charles A. Beard

STUDENTS of municipal government and city planners turned their eyes to Tokyo to watch the progress of reconstruction. Approximately two-thirds of the Japanese capital lay in ashes — the ground swept bare except in the relatively few squares where stood the wreck and ruin of brick, stone, and concrete structures.

Will the Japanese seize this opportunity to correct ancient errors and lay out a modern city, or will they follow the example set by London and San Francisco and rebuild substantially along the lines of the old street network? That was the question in the mind of every person interested in the noble art of city planning and administration.

First of all it must be remembered that the great industrial city is a new thing in Japan. It is little more than half a century since the hum of the first steam engine was heard there. As in America, so in Japan huge commercial and industrial centers have sprung up during the past fifty years. Yokohama was a mere fishing hamlet when Lincoln was inaugurated. Kobe stands on a site that was occupied by fishing villages when Perry visited the Land of the Rising Sun. Osaka, the Manchester of Japan, had only 332,000 inhabitants at the opening of this century. These and other centers have grown pellmell like Chicago after the Civil War, without systematic planning and sustained direction.

In every great city, however, there were leaders in municipal affairs deeply interested in problems of municipal government and well informed as to Western practices. Moreover, the interest of those who took thought about the matter was so intense that their influence was out of proportion to their numerical strength. In fact, they were able to carry through Parliament a city planning law. This measure created for the metropolitan area of each of the premier cities — Tokyo, Osaka, Kyoto, Kobe, Yokohama and Nagoya — a city planning commission. The commission for the prefecture of Tokyo was instituted and in cooperation with the city planning bureau of the Home Office began to work out a comprehensive plan for the capital. In the meantime a city planning bureau in the city government was carrying on independent investigations and a building bureau in the Police Department was executing ordinances for zoning the metropolitan area. Scores of engineers and technicians in official service, many of them trained abroad, were studying the problems of municipal administration in the broadest sense.

All this activity was, however, more or less esoteric; it did not deeply affect the general public. Indeed the city planning movement in a fundamental sense is new in all parts of the world. There have been many decorators of cities, build-

Charles A. Beard, most famous as a historian and former Columbia professor, is less well known for his activities in municipal government and planning. However, Professor Beard was Director of the Training School for Public Service in New York City, adviser to the Institute for Municipal Research in Tokyo, and later consultant on the reconstruction of that city.

ers of civic centers, cutters of new boulevards, and planners of industrial towns, but the concept of a city planned in all its phases with reference to the concrete needs of urban life and its regional setting is only now taking form in the minds of the leaders in the movement. If any one has any doubts on this point let him read ten of the latest manuals that have come from experts in this field or examine the annual reports of the American City Planning Conference.

It is not surprising therefore that interest in city planning in Japan was limited to a few enthusiasts and that the general public cared little about the subject. In other words, the political and business leaders with whom the city planner must deal were not conversant with the economy of city planning and ready to cooperate generously in the realization of a comprehensive scheme.

Such was the state of affairs. The area was only superficially cleared; it was not a clean slate, wax in the hands of the artist. It was still a complex of real and potential interests. The street car tracks extending in every direction and representing an investment of millions were intact. The water and gas pipes and other subsurface structures remained implanted in the old network of streets, representing millions more of invested capital. That was not all; the sites of great business houses, historic spots, associated for centuries in the minds of customers with standard wares and commodites, still possessed for their owners immense and incalculable values. More than a million homeless people and disestablished business men, facing poverty and the approaching winter, naturally thought of the coming morrow — of houses and business restored, in any way, as quickly as possible. There were thousands of small landowners in Tokyo, each tenacious of his little rights and bent upon holding fast to every inch of his sacred soil.

The story is not yet told. When the new cabinet was solemnly installed amid the ruined city, the rebuilding of Tokyo was only one of the questions before it. Railways had been destroyed, stations burned, the harbor of Yokohama wrecked, government buildings wiped out, schoolhouses crushed and burned, penal and charitable institutions laid in ruins — the economy of a large section of the empire smashed. What had been the financial loss? How could it be estimated? What would be the effect on international trade and domestic business? Should the insurance companies be driven into bankruptcy or forced to make a life-saving compromise?

Moreover, democracy was thundering at the gates. Class rule, long maintained by the union of capitalists and landlords, was challenged throughout the empire. Of course the cynics laughed, but those familiar with the course of revolutions and cataclysm in the Western world, like careful mariners, tried to get more certain bearings than those afforded by the landmarks of the ancient past.

In these circumstances Viscount Shimpei Goto was called to the office of Home Minister and presidency of the newly created Board of Reconstruction. The Home Office has general supervision over all cities and local governments; the Board was given special jurisdiction over Tokyo and Yokohama. No man seemed better fitted by training and experience for the post than Viscount Goto. He had built the beautiful city of Taihoku in Formosa when he was civil governor; he had developed the germs of the Russian plan for Dairen when he was President of the South Manchurian Railway. He had served in the Home Office before and had been mayor of Tokyo.

Besides experience he has other qualities. He is not afraid. He has vision and when he has power he can make decisions. But he had one weakness — he is not a party man. He stands on his record and depends for his strength upon popular support not expressed in politics. He has another weakness — he has ideas and is always looking for more. He believes that scientific research furnishes the best guide to governing persons in an age of technology. He proposes to tax the unearned increment of mighty landlords in Tokyo. Instead of wanting to shoot radicals on sight he tries to find out what is troubling them. He favors an understanding with Russia as the first step in restoring the peace and prosperity of the Orient. Naturally in conservative circles he accumulated a large and miscellaneous collection of implacable enemies.

He had hardly been installed in office before he proposed to condemn land immediately, lay out new streets, and distribute the remaining land among the former owners. Blocked in that bold frontal assault, he settled down to a long siege, under an ordinance, which permitted only temporary buildings to be erected. He gathered around him in the Reconstruction Board a group of Japanese specialists and began a search for the best way out of immense and harrassing difficulties. The experience of San Francisco and London was examined from every angle in quest of light on the situation in Tokyo; every possible problem of finance and administration was reviewed; and plans for a new city were evolved by men familiar with every inch of the ground and with the historic sentiments attached to every *cho*.

By the middle of November the essential features of the new plan, which seemed to repre-

sent all that was possible to obtain, were complete and the financial aspect of its execution carefully reviewed from every angle. Certain matters were cleared up in cabinet conference and the Government was ready for the special session of the Diet. When the new budget was worked out in cooperation with party leaders it became apparent that practically nothing would be allotted for realizing the new plan. Impelled by strict economy, the Diet really decided to do little more than rebuild the government structures destroyed. Thereupon Viscount Goto tendered his resignation, but was persuaded by the Premier to retain his portfolio. Personally I regard his return to the ministry a mistake; but I do not pretend to know what considerations weighed most in his mind when he took this step.

Still there are many evidences of weakness in the cabinet of which he is a member. It cannot dictate; it cannot direct the course of events. It cannot unloosen the purse strings. It is conservative at a time when nothing but radical courage can prevent Tokyo from rebuilding substantially along the old lines — another fire trap.

The reconstruction of the city along lines of true economy and safety, therefore, depends upon complex political circumstances. Japan is in the same position that England would have been in if the London fire had happened while the tumult over the Reform Bill of 1832 was raging. Every day that passes without sharp decision makes the task of city planning more difficult; for every week sees ten or fifteen thousand houses going up in the ruined district. It is not likely that citizens who have restored production and business in wooden houses will readily consent to tear them down to make room for a new street and park plan.

In fact, the experience of London, San Francisco, and Tokyo raise the question whether any modern city can be planned except under a dictator! I do not refer to the mere construction of costly civic centers so dear to the hearts of Main Street, or grand boulevards such as Haussmann cut in Paris or Burnham laid out in Chicago. I refer to city planning in the broadest sense, including every phase — transportation, housing, railway terminals, markets, factory zones, street plan, public works, parks, public buildings, and monuments showing forth the national spirit.

Haussmann could do his work in Paris because he was backed by Napoleon III — in fact, if not in theory, an imperial dictator who cared nothing about the burden of debt imposed upon the capital and posterity and who operated on the principle of his Bourbon predecessors: "After us the deluge." All the world admires work done under his imperious rule, but the times seem out of point for another experiment of that kind. We seem to be between two worlds: the day when a dictator could by the wave of a wand order a new city to spring up in a wilderness or upon the ruins of an old metropolis is past; hydra-headed democracy or near-democracy is not ready for the task.

There are signs of change but if anyone dissents from the major proposition let him inquire why Manhattan Island has witnessed no substantial improvements in its railway freight terminal facilities in half a century or why the people of no great American city are yet housed with the degree of comfort and economy that is warranted by our boasted progress in natural science.

The coordination of the social and economic forces necessary to effect a comprehensive city plan, is a task of appalling magnitude. The engineering difficulties are slight in comparison, for engineering science is a thousand years ahead of social science. It remains to be seen whether in an age when the people have a voice in affairs there can be effected a concert of powers sufficiently potent to carry out a comprehensive scheme of city planning in the face of organized, short-sighted private interests and political ineptitude.

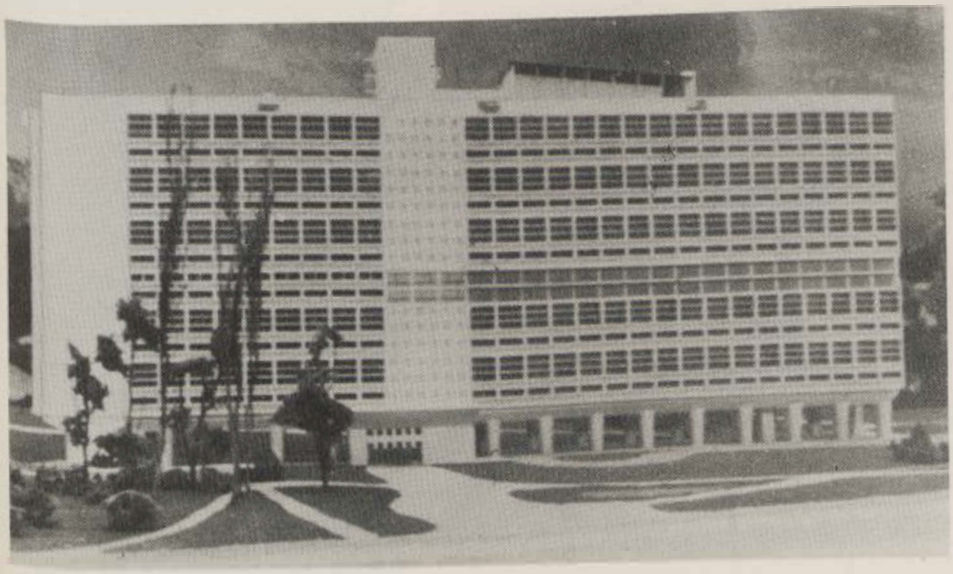
All that has been said above does not imply any reflection on the Japanese nation. England failed utterly to meet the opportunities created by the London fire; but the stature of England was hardly diminished by that failure. Neither do my remarks imply that municipal progress in Japan will come to an end if a grand plan is not adopted in Tokyo at one stroke. On the contrary there will be some distinct gain. All the narrowest alleys will be wiped out by the new law that no street shall be less than nine feet wide. Certain narrow streets in the business section will be materially widened. New park areas will be set aside.

Ardent warriors of the new day in Japan, failing to take the citadel by a frontal attack, will settle down to a seige and will win in a long campaign all that they hoped to win in a day.

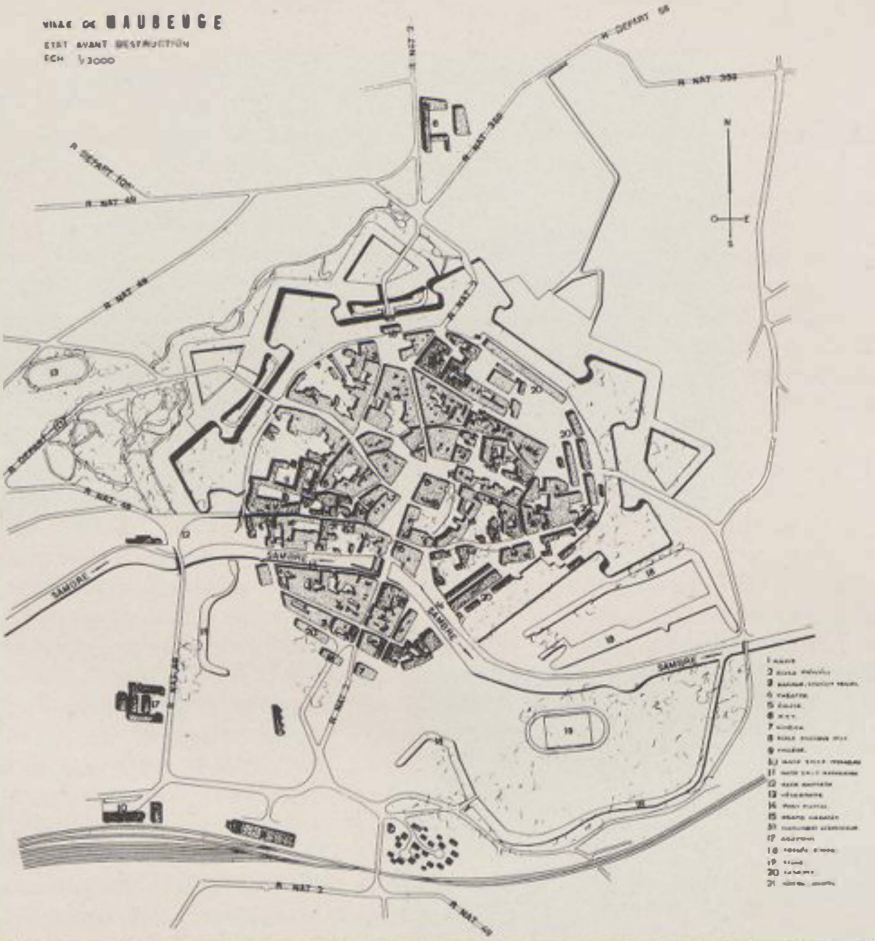
NOTE: This article, slightly abridged, is reprinted from the April, 1924 issue of "Our World" with the kind permission of Professor Beard and "Scholastic Magazine", successor to "Our World."

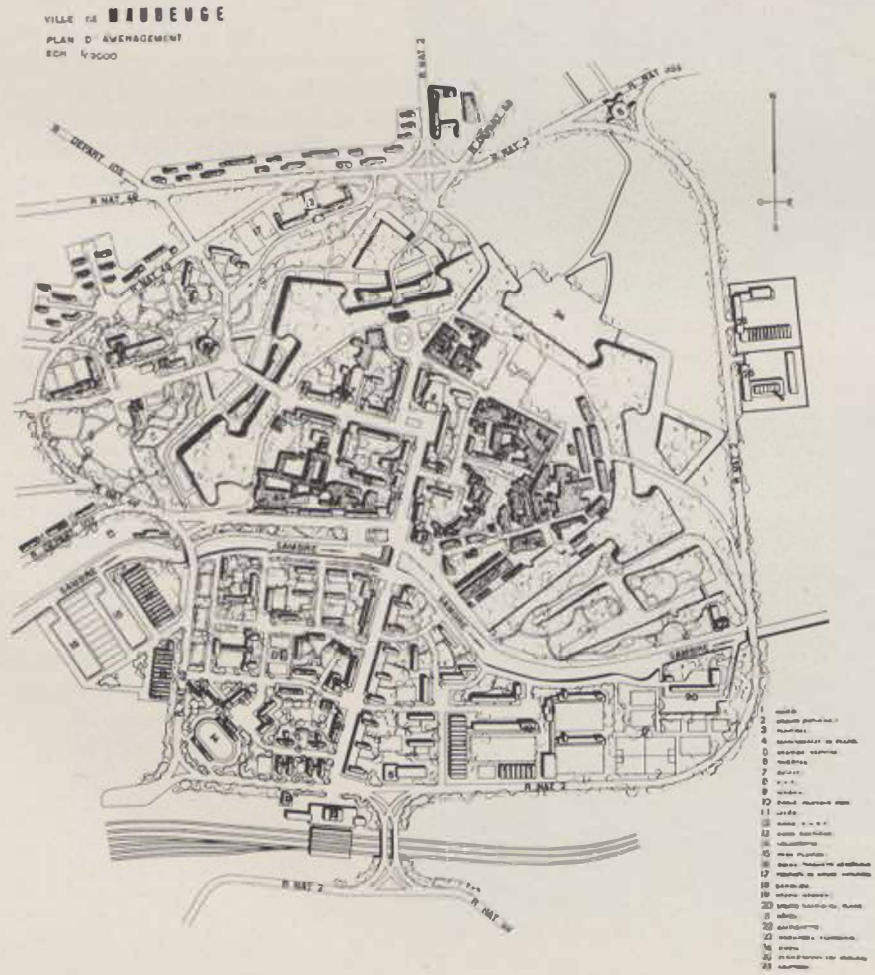
Top: *New airport building, Collingswood, Ireland; D. Fitzgerald, Architect.* (*F. Porges*)

Upper left: *Covered market, Paris; Marcel Lods, Architect.* (*J. Hosken*)



Lower left: *Model by Le Corbusier for apartment house in Marseilles.* (*F. Porges*)

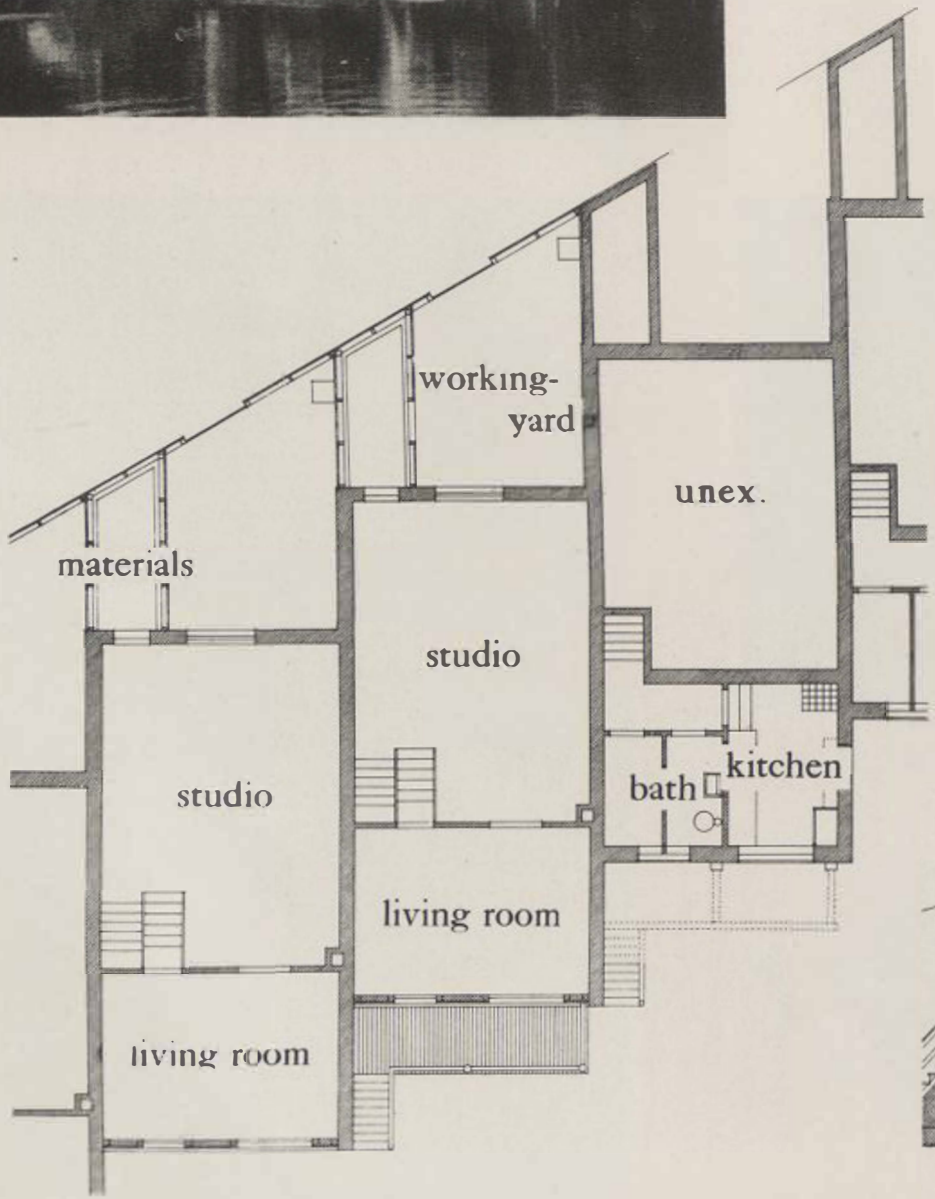




Top: *Layout of town of Maubeuge in northern France before destruction.*

Bottom: *Plan by André Lurçat for Maubeuge indicating reconstruction proposals for destroyed areas.*

Studio cottages for sculptors and painters in Copenhagen, constructed by the Association of Social Housing; V. Moller-Jensen, Architect.



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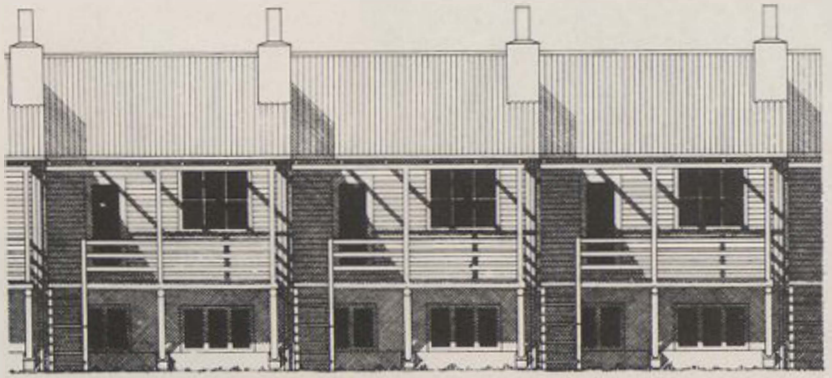
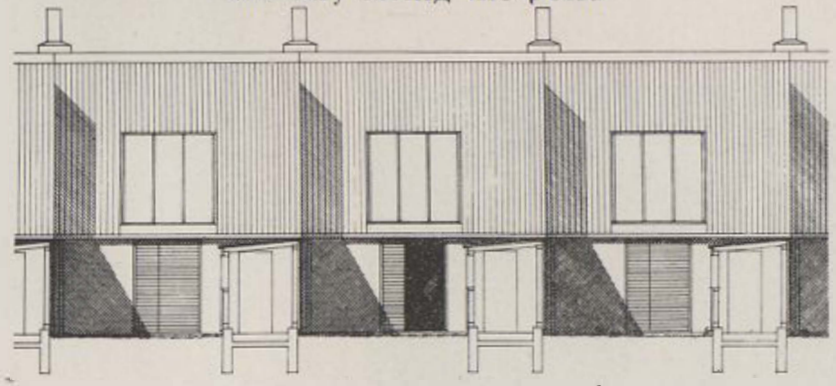
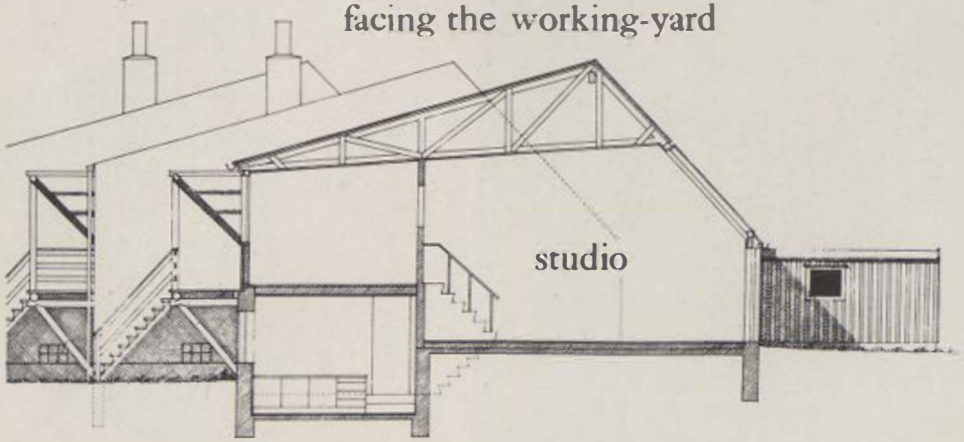


balcony facing the pond



facing the working-yard



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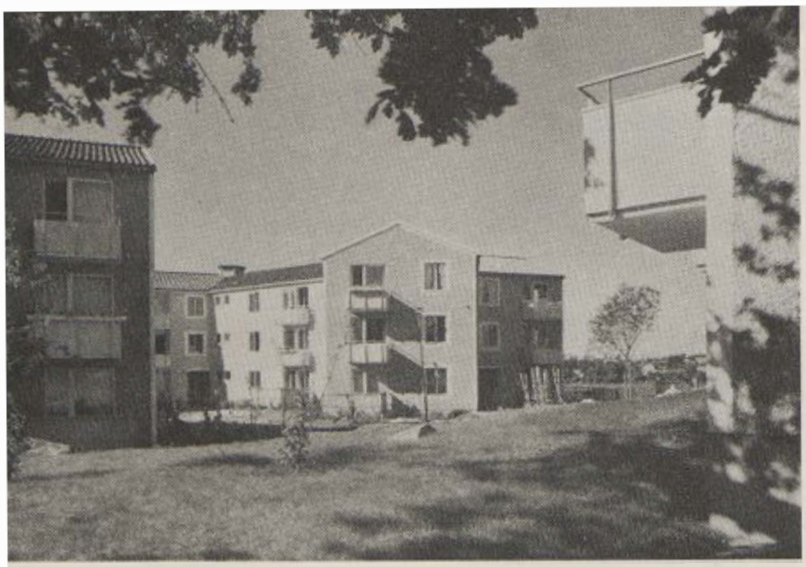
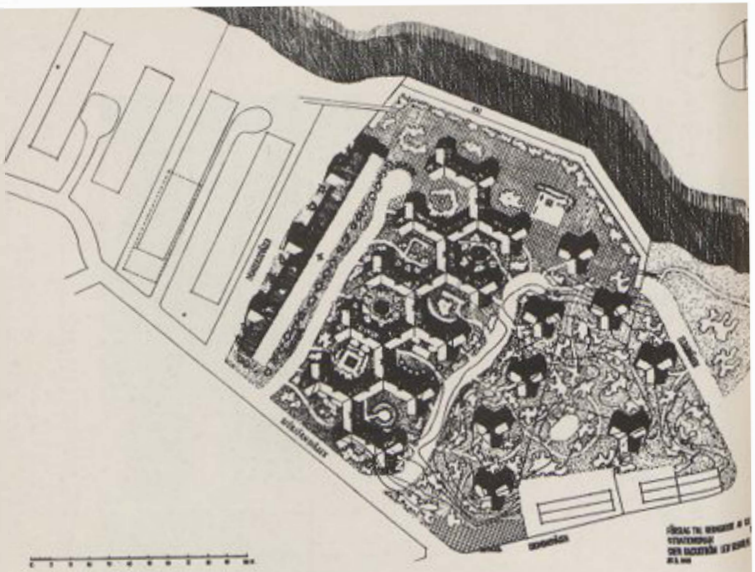
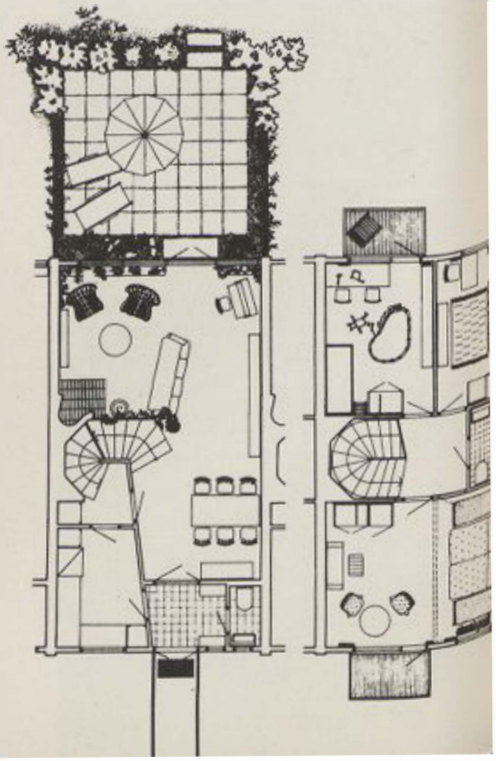




Top and middle: *New Swedish housing, Stockholm area; S. Backstrom and L. Reinius, Architects*
Bottom: *New Swedish housing, Stockholm area; H. Egler, Architect.*



RECONSTRUCTION: UNESCO

Julian Huxley

Julian Huxley, British scientist and author of "TVA: Adventure in Planning", among other works, is now Director-General of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization with headquarters in Paris.

UNESCO is concerned primarily with directing the resources of science, education and the arts to preserving and enriching the peace. An important aspect of this work must be to improve man's relation to his physical environment and to increase participation by all peoples in the world's cultural treasures.

It is tragically evident that most of the world's families live in homes that are indequate for social or cultural development and that lack the most modest application of the benefits of science. Whole areas in twentieth century cities have no adequate space or facilities for the pursuit of educational, scientific or cultural activities. The pressure of increased population, the expansion of urban industrial areas, and the mechanisation of agriculture press hard on natural open space.

Unspoiled nature is a necessary part of man's environment to provide release from the strains of urban life, as a means of refreshment, and also as a reservoir and haven for species important to man economically, scientifically and educationally. From the home to the wilderness, man's environment closely influences his ability to achieve higher levels of understanding, to enrich the peace.

To the Economic and Social Council of the UN falls the principal concern of housing and planning, particularly the emergency needs of reconstruction in war-devastated Europe and Asia. UNESCO, however, is also closely associated with scientific and artistic aspects of this work.

UNESCO therefore is planning a survey of education of town and country planners, designers and architects. UNESCO is stimulating the international exchange of views concerning the modernization of curricula in these subjects, both in the social sciences and in schools of design.

A wider understanding is being promoted of the basic scientific and cultural objectives which should underlie modern town and country planning. UNESCO is also stimulating its member states to an inquiry on national programmes and policies governing national parks, nature reserves, and the conservation of wild life with a view to promoting protective legislation, fauna conventions and international agreements about migratory species.

With the United Nations, UNESCO is also preparing the establishment of an International Centre for Home and Community Planning which should take concrete form during 1948.

In these tasks, as in all its activities, UNESCO does not work alone but in close cooperation with the UN and its specialized agencies, with governmental and international groups, and with technicians and experts throughout the world.

The degree of their participation in the activities sponsored or stimulated by UNESCO will be the measure of the progress and the value of UNESCO itself.

RECONSTRUCTION: IFHTP

Morris H. Hirsh

Morris H. Hirsh, who served on the staffs of the American Society of Planning Officials in Chicago, the Tennessee State Planning Commission, and the National Housing Agency, is now Acting Secretary-General of the International Federation for Housing and Town Planning, with temporary headquarters in London.

THE International Federation for Housing and Town Planning, by vote of its Executive Committee, has decided to re-establish the Secretariat, closed since the outbreak of the war in 1939. After several years of tenuous existence caused by the disruption of communication during hostilities and the subsequent period of uncertainty following V-E Day, the Federation now hopes to renew its pre-war role and to provide once again the many valuable services to members and all persons throughout the world interested in housing and planning. I speak with feeling in making this announcement inasmuch as I have accepted the position as temporary Secretary-General of the Federation and expect to proceed at once to take up the assignment. By the time this appears I shall be in London at work on the job.

Some of the friends of the Federation may remember that before the war the Secretariat was located in Brussels as part of the International Center, along with the Union of Cities and the Institute of Administrative Sciences. Shortly after the war began this office was closed. Since that time a small headquarters has been operating in London under the guidance and supervision of the Honorary Chairman, Mr. George L. Pepler, and the Honorary Secretary, Mrs. Pepler. They have managed with a small staff and inadequate facilities to publish several copies of a news bulletin and to arrange the highly successful International Congress, held at Hastings, England, in October, 1946.

At present there is a great demand for the Federation to carry on a much more intensive program of activity. This is particularly true in Western Europe. The unreconstructed cities and towns of almost every country are a constant reminder that a tremendous job lies ahead to make normal living a reality once again. People everywhere are seeking a way to accomplish this goal and are clamoring for a clearing house of information that can furnish them with methods and techniques for rebuilding homes, shops and factories. They also want a forum to which they can come to discuss their ideas and to exchange experiences with others working on similar problems.

The principal activity of the Federation will be to attempt to satisfy this need. Precisely what means will be most expedient is difficult to say at this writing. Undoubtedly there will be a series of publications — both original articles and material compiled on various aspects of current housing and planning development. In June 1948, there will be an opportunity for representatives of all the nations to meet at the International Congress in Zurich, Switzerland, where the same subjects will be more intimately discussed. The Executive Committee has already considered a tentative program for this meeting. Several papers will be presented and a number of round-table discussions will be held. The suggested topics include: financial aids to housing, standards and equipment in the house, housing management, national and regional planning, neighborhood planning, training planners and teamwork in planning.

In the not-too-distant future it is hoped to move the Federation's Secretariat back to Brussels where operation can be resumed under the cooperative arrangement with the same organizations as existed prior to 1939. The library and equipment taken by the Germans during the occupation have already been returned to Brussels and are waiting to be claimed by their proper owner.

To close on a personal note: I recognize that assuming responsibility for the direction of the activities of the Federation presents a great challenge. I go as an American who, like many of his fellow-citizens, is often discouraged by the social and political climate at home affecting the work of every housing and planning agency from the Federal to the local level. It will be a stimulating experience to be associated with people who have an entirely different outlook — born of their much closer contact with the horrors of war and their need to solve the urgent problems of reconstruction. On the other hand, one cannot avoid anticipating the difficulties inherent in the assignment. Language barriers, social and political differences of opinion, as well as the lack of many physical facilities considered essential in the United States, are a few of the problems that will be a part of my daily program. If, however, I can minimize these negative factors and concentrate on the positive results that are possible in the field of housing and planning, there will be some satisfaction that through the International Federation I shall be making a small contribution toward the ultimate achievement of one world.

THE HOUSING IMPASSE

Richard F. Watt

I have not criticized any private builder. I am criticizing the economic system of the United States that has resulted for 150 years in this pass-me-down thing into slums, and will go on doing it exactly unless the cost of housing comes down. —

SENATOR ROBERT A. TAFT

WE Americans are rightly proud of our technical achievements. We have confidence, and with some justice, in our ability to solve whatever mechanical or production problem we choose to tackle. Given the equipment and know-how we believe we can turn iron-ore into the gleaming comforts of life, deserts into gardens, and — though it's a bit out of our line — slums into well-planned cities. For every obstacle and difficulty we know there is bound to be a technical answer.

Thus it is that the housing shortage strikes us — as a technical affair, a problem of production. If the way we go about the job proves slow and costly, the fault is with the inefficiency and handicraft backwardness of the building industry. Surely there's no problem the assembly-line cannot solve. The automobile and, in grimmer years, the tank and warplane show what we can do.

Our housing literature reflects these popular notions. Up-to-the-minute factory methods, fabulous synthetic materials, bold new designs, prefabrication — these strike our imagination, these give promise of revolutionary changes in our homes and our lives, these will clear our slums and house our millions in style and comfort. Utopia, like the washing machine, comes f.o.b.

If at times our productive capacity and Yankee ingenuity fail to produce, if we do not accomplish what we feel we should, we have an answer ready. Politics — forever gumming up the works! And the very figure of speech is revealing.

Somehow it never occurs to us that what we may lack is not the technical skill but the ability to use that technical skill. We never seem to realize that something more is necessary than an unending quest after new techniques, that equally important is the search for the means of using the techniques we already possess, let alone those we aim to discover. To be sure, we have all heard of inventions deliberately kept from production — of razor blades that will last a lifetime. But these are the exceptions, which, if they prove anything at all, only go to show how amazingly inventive we really are. We make no effort to fit these exceptions into the larger picture of the economic system — that complex structure of millions of consumers, producers, and workers, bound together by a bewildering array of offers, bids, contracts, gentlemen's agreements, customs, laws, and hopes and fears — which uses our technical

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skill to produce the things we want. We do not ask what it is about that system which makes its failures as well as its successes so spectacular. There are 30,000 parts in a house, you say? Well, why don't we eliminate half of them and standardize and mass-produce the rest?

The approach is good and the confidence inspiring. But before we can modernize the framework of the house we must modernize the framework that makes the house. Before our economic system can do a job on housing to the full extent of our present techniques, we first must do a job on our economic system. The technical know-how is there. But the economic know-how is missing.

Senator Taft is right. The economic system of the United States has been producing slums for 150 years and will go right on producing them for all we are presently doing to stop it. Our popular magazines abound with beautiful designs for tomorrow's house and tomorrow's city. Yet the houses we build today are the slums of tomorrow's city.

Senator Taft is right. The cost of housing must come down. Yet the cost of housing keeps going up. To bring it down — or to keep it from going higher — we cut deep into the standards of comfort and decency and safety and durability. To keep it down, we crowd houses together on raw land inconveniently distant from transportation, shopping and recreation, without regard for space and light and with no more than a passing thought for community planning and community living. To keep it down, we subsidize — and handsomely too — the men and institutions who finance and build tomorrow's slums today.

Senator Taft is right. It is beside the point to criticize the private builder. So long as he can profit by doing what he likes to call home building, why should he behave differently? Why, when the community passes laws which tell him — and pay him — to continue doing what he has been doing for 150 years? For the *summum bonum* is not to be well housed but to profit well from housing.

To understand housing in our so-called free enterprise economy we had best begin by giving the system a more appropriate name. Let us call it a profit-motive economy. In the production of houses, as of hair brushes and hamburgers the motive is profit. And the profit which initially motivates the productive process is the profit of the initiator or promoter or entrepreneur. If he — or his financial backer — thinks houses are a profitable venture, he starts the house-building process on its way. The innumerable contractors, subcontractors, materialmen and jobbers thereupon line up — at a profit of course — to do their part of the job.

Without profit opportunities for the entrepreneur and all the others engaged in house building there is no house building, for these men are profit-seekers not philanthropists. And, of course, as between various possible ventures the entrepreneur will choose that which promises to be most profitable. If he senses a higher return on roadhouses than on residences, he will build roadhouses. Thus during the veterans housing program, the building industry specialized in service stations, night clubs, beer joints and fancy store-fronts.

Naturally the builder has little or no interest in the housing needs of those who cannot pay enough to assure a profit. Since only the upper income groups have such wherewithal — which economists discreetly call effective demand — the upper income groups alone constitute the market for new houses.

Given the motive and given the market, the make-up and methods of the building industry are pretty well determined. The industry is organized to profit from building houses for the housing market — a few houses for the few. It makes its way in an economy of scarcity in housing. Mass production techniques which promise so much have little or no place in its tight little world, and as a matter of fact they threaten its security.

This organization — which to many seems so terribly disorganized — and this pattern of activities express themselves in customs and laws and accepted business practices. These rules of profitable behavior are shaped and protected by the industry, and, in turn, they help to shape and protect that industry. The restrictive practices designed to preserve a market area for the few who exploit it, the building codes which add legal sanction to the monopoly positions of suppliers of particular goods and services, the outmoded laws which render titles and conveyancing so legalistic and so lucrative — these defenses make the vested interests of housing difficult to divest. In fact the legal system with its innumerable bottle-necks of doctrine and procedure is perhaps the most tenacious defender of the housing industry and its profitable *status quo antiquated*.

Now it is the essence of this system that it function without a plan. In theory none is needed, since the profit motive, operating in the free market of effective demand, initiates the production of whatever the effective demanders want much better than any conceivable plan, and without the intervention of planners, professors, bureaucrats and other twentieth century ogres. As a matter of fact this is quite true. The relatively few possessors of effective demand never lack for new housing. Since they are doing so nicely, they have no interest in planning. But the

people who inhabit the slums or double up with their in-laws must live that way because they lack effective demand, even though their need for decent housing is overwhelming. Under our system of planlessness they are completely ignored.

Sooner or later, however, the situation becomes explosive. Just recently the demobilization of millions of servicemen caused public officials and newspaper editors to label the housing situation a grave emergency. It so happens that in American political jargon an emergency is a deep-rooted and recurring problem which never receives anything but an exclusively *ad hoc* treatment. In this way people become convinced that the situation — whatever it is — does not involve a continuing problem but is rather an accident or an act of God — a freak occurrence unlikely to happen again. Above all, the people are told that the situation is temporary, justifying only the most temporary of measures.

The housing shortage is perhaps the most persistent of all our temporary social emergencies. We have solved it temporarily so many times one might think we eventually would recognize yesterday's solution in today's problem. But since such insight might lead us to query the virtues of planlessness, we suppress the thought and go right ahead with measures which assure us bigger problems and more of them. For a housing emergency is nothing but a previous housing emergency aggravated by its solution.

This is not to say that there has not been plenty of government activity. The federal government has been particularly attentive to the problem and over a period of forty years or so has actually reached the conclusion that slums are not created by the people who live in them. But for all its study the government has never come forward with a comprehensive plan for solving the housing problem. No sooner does it announce that at the very minimum we need 1,250,000 new homes a year for the next ten years than it hurries to proclaim that private enterprise will do most of the building. The government will study, encourage, assist, finance, subsidize, insure, and observe but, never fear, it will not plan. Because if it planned it might be forced to admit that the private building industry — despite the good wishes and better subsidies of government — will not and cannot do the job.

The government achieved its present eminence as fairy godfather to the building industry in a most roundabout way. Originally, it built housing projects, like battleships, in an effort to prime the pump and provide employment. It also lavished substantial favors on private enterprise in the interest of increased building activity. But the houses produced were purely incidental — the main thing was to fight the depression. Along about the time the public housing formula showed how to house the lowest income groups and clear slums as well, the government decided we had had enough of such un-American solutions to non-existent problems. Then the war made further direct action essential. But again the housing was incidental — the real aim was to fight the enemy. Even so, suspecting that some houses would result, the government took pains to prevent their falling into the hands of the public housers when the shooting ended.

Having by accident discovered a practicable solution to the problem which its study showed private enterprise could not solve, the government nonetheless continued and extended the whole set of depression-born financial aids to private enterprise. Experiment with neighborhood redevelopment and limited divided corporations had demonstrated that private enterprise would not clear slums or build houses for limited profits where risk remained. In the end, then, the government adopted the view that to eliminate slums the first thing to do was to eliminate risks. Of all its schemes, the FHA mortgage insurance system was the most important. Its purpose was simple — to put the credit of the United States government back of the lender and eventually the entrepeneur too, thus reducing private risk virtually to zero. If all went well they would feel more inclined to finance new housing — with profit but without risk. With such devices the government perpetuated the pattern — and the profits — of the building industry. It subsidized the very people who had signally failed to provide housing for any but the upper income groups, hoping in this way to bring costs down so that other groups in the population could get some housing too. But the net effect has been housing as usual at risks lower than usual.

Inevitably the government has become the promoter of all the contradictory and socially unjustifiable activities of the private building industry. FHA fosters the spread of restrictive covenants ostensibly to stabilize the values of the mortgages it insures. Thus the government imposes the pattern of the ghetto on American life. Private redevelopment of slums is sponsored without provision for housing the people who live in the slums. Thus the government increases overcrowding and ups values in remaining slum areas. Tax exemption is granted the housing projects of insurance companies built at densities greater than the slums they displace, not to rehouse the slum-dwellers but to provide middle and upper income housing for whites only. Thus the government subsidizes housing for those who need it least. And home ownership is ballyhooed for veterans regardless of their desires, needs or financial capabilities. Thus the government adds

to the perils of an uncertain economic future. The profits and problems of housing multiply happily together.

The tragedy is not alone our failure to grasp our opportunities. It is also our apparent determination to make it more difficult for the future to grasp its opportunities. By not planning now we erect countless new barriers to sound planning in the future. Every restrictive covenant, every recklessly gridironed subdivision, every jerry-built house is a heritage of headache for years to come. The discrepancy between our technical skill in planning and housing and our ability to use that skill is already great. But our sorry performance today inevitably makes it greater. If the planners and housers of today are frustrated, God and the psychiatrists help their successors!

The impasse in housing will continue until the people — including the planners and housers — force their government to plan housing and to cease guaranteeing the profits of housing. If this means a bold approach and a large measure of government building, then we must have the bold approach and the government building. If this means substantial changes in our customs and laws and business practices, then we must have these changes. If this means divesting powerful vested interests, then we must divest them.

For the impasse in housing is man-made, government sanctioned and legally blessed. And for the few it is a profitable impasse. This is what housers and planners must realize. It is not enough that they be competent technicans. They must also be accomplished politicians. Only then can they successfully fight for a chance to put their training and skill and ability to work for the common good.

ON GENUINE EDUCATION

Joseph Hudnut

IN one of those aphorisms with which Bertrand Russell illumines the path of philosophy he describes the basic impulses of men as two in number. These, the prime generators of our thought and activity, are the *possessive impulse* and the *creative impulse*. The mind, he tells us, is a battlefield upon which these struggle for sovereignty.

The possessive impulse, that which is concerned with acquisition, is the source of disharmony and conflict among men. From the possessive impulse arises the undisclosed poverty of our lives, outwardly rich and starved within. The creative impulse, that which is concerned with making and doing, is the source of freedom and health. The creative impulse is that which by giving direction and meaning to our activities transfigures life into an art.

This postulate of Bertrand Russell is, as Havelock Ellis has said, somewhat too religious for human nature's daily fare; and yet it is one which promises a certain usefulness for those who are responsible for education. These definitions, however abstract, are yet pertinent to that crisis in valuations which now confronts the teacher — and with the teacher the nation. What education is genuine? What is the true measure of its value? And if that true measure is the expansion of life and its enrichment, why have we given in our schools and universities so narrow a guidance to the creative impulse? Why is it that the arts, which are the typical manifestations of the creative impulse, form so meagre and so neglected an element in the educational process?

The explanation lies outside school and university. Our ideal and our system in education are fashioned not by teachers but by that society which teachers serve. Education is there conceived as a means of habituating children to the ways of the world in which they are to live, the nature of that world being accepted as its necessary basis. Our children are to be fitted uncritically into the pattern of the social cosmos which surrounds them; made to share its rituals and opinions, to obey its laws and taboos, to accept the legends and folk-tales which rationalize and illustrate it. That has been from the beginning of history, and no doubt long before, the function assigned to education by those who govern the world.

When therefore the school and the university seem primarily concerned with those disciplines which help their students to get on in the world — when the processes of education appear chiefly to encourage the possessive impulse — we have as teachers played that role which is assigned us by contemporary society. Whether he lives in the white villages of New England or on the red Arizona range, in the crowded streets of Chicago or in the cotton fields of Mississippi, the American

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child breathes with the American air the ambition to acquire and hold his full share of the good things of the earth. Everywhere our society confirms by temper and example that universal imperative which our religion disturbs without redirecting; to which romantic love affords only a brief interval; and our machine-made leisure offers little more than anodynes from its restless urgencies. Education, which has at last escaped all aristocratic or ecclesiastic control — and escaped, I sometimes think, the direction of the intellectual forces — does not walk apart from the general march of our time.

Now it must be admitted that the free play of the possessive impulse, having as its characteristic expression that economic pattern called *private enterprise*, is or at any rate has been the essential basis of our national prosperity. If, as Mr. Russell says, the possessive impulse is the source of conflict and disharmony among men, it is also the source, or one of the sources, of our physical health and well-being — to which, it may be, conflict and disharmony are essential precedents. Nor can it be said it has atrophied the creative impulse. No one, I think, is likely to complain of the meagreness of our production. Automobiles, radios, refrigerators; air-conditioning, plastics, radiant heating and the prefabrication of houses; television, printing-press, ocean steamships and the ingenious engines of war: these, the multiplex children of the creative impulse, cover our land with hurricanes of invention and gadget. The fertility of our machines is prodigal, incessant, and immeasurably varied, like that of nature.

Like that of nature; and yet not like that of nature. Nature, to whose realm man is paradox and intruder; nature, who pours out her inexhaustible invention of plant and animal, of mountain, sea and sunset without taking note of the presence of man, yet builds for him a theatre more nobly planned than that which he builds for himself. If we cannot guess the purpose of nature's luxuriance, we can nevertheless feel the grandeur and harmony with which she surrounds us, and know the peace and fulfillment of her pageantry and beauty. If we discover in all of nature's infinite manifestations that same impulse to create and possess (which are our needs also) we perceive that these exist there as circumstances which are incidental to far wider progressions. Whatever may be the movement and range of each living thing, however fierce the struggle of each to possess and use its sphere, each is yet fitted into the majestic harmonies of the universe.

In our society we look in vain for that general pattern and progression to which our passion of accumulation and manufacture might be addressed, that wider purpose which might impose a harmony upon these. Our industries have taken possession of us. Our thought, our fashions and our language are made conformable to the practices of our commerce; they are industrial products, limited like the other products of our industry, to the terms of manufacture and marketability. Our way of life is established for us by the practices of commerce: a way of life, peculiar to our age alone, which encourages to the utmost the creative impulse only to make it the tool of the possessive impulse; a way of life which distorts and corrupts the creative impulse so that, while it is active to make and multiply, its range is yet limited to the strict necessities of biological or economic service; a way of life which leaves unconstructed that new civilization without which all the rage of our machines will be unavailing for human happiness.

There has come into being in our day a functionalism of thought so pervasive and so confident as to bring into contempt all that does not pertain to the business of living. We are impatient of form, of etiquette and of general idea; we erase from our lives all ceremony and ornament, all ritual, spectacle and quaint observance, and with these the variety, interest and circumstance which once illumined and interpreted our world. We are fitted into a great machine and perform there each his appointed routine with the impersonality of pulleys and levers; and our cellular lives, mass-produced like the clothes we wear and the ideas we entertain, are dull, regimented and barren.

There are few of our patterns of work and play and social intercourse that could not be given a form friendly to the human spirit. There are few of the products of this mechanized world so essentially mean that they could not be made the accessories of a good life. This slavery which we endure is not a necessary consequence of invention and enterprise. Invention and enterprise should have set us free: free to build a civilization, free to give form and direction to our lives, free to develop and practice an art of life.

At all costs we must recover such an art of life. We must build a channel for the creative spirit, source of freedom and health, so that it may escape the tyranny of possession; a channel through which idea and belief may enter into and nourish the general life. What is needed is an art — an art of life — which is neither the precious entertainment of a happy few or the vulgar companion of the salesman but one which all of us can command and practice.

It must be obvious that we cannot by an act of the will recover these sources of art which have been discredited by the onward march of the sciences and of political idea. We cannot return to an aristocratic regime; or to an era of faith; or

to that "picturesque and dutiful order which rested on local institutions and the authority of the family." We must live, for good or evil, in an industrialized world; in a democratic, perhaps socialistic, world; in a world where the ideas and prejudices of the East are soon to be as determinant as those of Western Europe. If we are to create a civilization it must be upon these premises. We must discover, not in the past but in the new world that has suddenly enveloped us, the new sources of our art; we must build upon them the new patterns of behavior, the new morality, the new way of apprehending life, which, taken together, will form our new art of life.

I do not know where such discoveries are to be made, such building undertaken, if not in our schools and universities. If it has been our role as teachers to accept and to serve the successive cultures which have followed each other on the stage of history, has it not been also our role to challenge these and to be among the first to assist the formation of new syntheses? If we could inspire in our pupils, or even in a small number of them, a craving for some purpose in work beyond individual advantage, a desire for some pattern in their lives and in the collective life beyond that essential to security and prosperity, a need for that kind of creativeness which is addressed to a harmony among beliefs, aspirations and material circumstance; if, in a word, we could give our students the habits of thought and of vision which have always characterized those who have created, not machines, but civilizations; then we should have made at least one important step towards the healing of the social ills which afflict our time. There is this leaven in our world; there is this power of self-healing; there are those who will uphold our hands.

In education nothing is valuable "for its own sake." We should examine not as ends but as means those literary methods and scientific concepts which form the bases of our present system in order that we may determine their relevance to the kind of education which will encourage a genuine creativeness. Whatever may be their utility in practical life, all methods and materials are in our educational processes chiefly of value in proportion as they assist the student to compose his own life, to understand the true nature of wealth and to sustain the progressive development of society as a whole. They are, in short, only of value as they contribute to the unfolding of personality and to the widening of horizons. We have been too ready to measure our teaching as an instrument for practical success — or as one of those absurd keys which unlock the doors of universities — or perhaps as the means through which a life may be ornamented with beautiful and outmoded behavior-patterns. It is quite possible that, even when so valued, our ways of teaching are sanctioned as much by habit and superstition as by sense.

We have grown too confident of our sciences, of our techniques, of the power of literary and factual knowledge. These are utilities, essential to a well-rounded and balanced life, essential no doubt to responsible citizenship and parenthood; but their importance as the tools of teachers has been so exaggerated as to obscure even in our own minds the true nature of education. While we arm our students for practical success and possession we fit them also for a servile role; they cannot direct their lives or the life of society towards a reasoned end; they will be pushed about by the winds of their time.

The sciences, for example, contain — as they are taught in high school and college — no explanation within themselves of their utility except as weapons in the struggle for material gain. We add the explanation as a morality or an admonition; and we know how weak are morality and admonition when opposed to the possessive impulse. The methods by which the sciences are taught, the implications which these methods bear, the incentives which make them interesting to the student — these actually discipline the mind in the processes of materialism and confirm, rather than question, the conception of knowledge as an instrument of practical success.

I do not suggest that we should give up the teaching of the sciences or that we should fail to give our students a reasonable command of language, or a descriptive and analytical acquaintance with government and ethics, good manners, or an understanding through the study of history of what constitutes a good life; I suggest, rather, that all of these could be brought into focus, fused into a unity, and given an immediate relevance to the student's life, if they were to be taught not as the means by which to achieve possession but as elements in an art of living: if they were presented as the material out of which the student is to make a pattern for his life.

I have in mind, not so much a change in the subject-matter which may be taught (although I think that this matter might be greatly reduced both in length and scope) as I am in the method and in the temper of our teaching. I would have the method, whatever the subject-matter, the method of the artist. That method is, essentially, the translation of idea and impression, of fact and material substance, into expressive pattern.

It is that search of order and meaning which make the artist the most perfect of civilizing agencies; for it is he who reconciles the life of the imagination — the aspect of life most necessary to civilized living — with the actual and physical life, making the purposes of the human spirit

supreme over its material environment. Such a reconciliation, I need not say, is most urgent for the happiness of mankind.

Through the artist's way of working there was created all that was important in past civilizations, all that remains important in our present civilization, and all that is civilized in our individual lives. It was through that way of working that we shaped that armature of principle and usage which binds us together as a nation; all that fabric of convention, manners and amenities which sustains the commerce of our society; and in that way also were formed the structure and ornaments of our religion, our stable channels of industry, and our system of education. All of these are works of art: not works of art made by lone men of genius but made rather by the millions of men and women who had discovered in home and school and community a dignity and direction not revealed by those lanterns, however glittering, which are turned in the direction of self-promotion and self-prosperity.

To establish and confirm the artist's way of working I should introduce into the curriculum of school and college a practice with the arts of expression far wider and deeper than any which is now available. The value of such practice lies not in the skill which may be acquired in painting, in music, or in architecture, but in that experience which these arts afford of pattern and purpose transcending practical success. These arts create channels which the creative impulse follows: follows not into slavery but into the mastery of an empire, however limited. In that empire the spirit is free to shape and to interpret, to give form and meaning to material substances.

We need not be concerned here with aesthetic judgments. We are concerned with a way of making and doing. We should teach art as activity: as a certain kind of activity; an activity characterized by a coördination of vision and skill and distinguished by a search for spiritual values. Here, no less than in all other teaching, the method, not the subject-matter, is the first consideration. Pictures, cathedrals or chairs: not the kind of art but the process of art is the essential thing. Pictures may sometimes express values inaccessible to tables and chairs (even when these are made of plywood) and yet it does not really matter greatly whether our students make pictures of chairs.

I do not overlook the other and more obvious ministries of art: among these the experience of great masterpieces of painting, music and architecture. The student who has known, not as description and precept merely, but as an immediate reality, the stately structures of truth and feeling raised by Dante and Beethoven, the beauty and grace of the Greek tradition, has apprehended, however dimly, an order in the world beyond that which is accessible to the senses. He has been lifted, if only for a moment, above the heavy earthen atmosphere of necessity. The phrase is Schopenhauer's and was used by him to define the redeeming nature of art.

Such experiences should not be reserved for periods of play or escape, nor should they be introduced as incidents merely, as appendages to the more arduous disciplines of science and language, but as a thread woven inseparably into every phase of education, coloring the student's expanding knowledge of the world, informing with meaning his developing aptitudes; and they should have their own methods of instruction, not re-framed out of the conventional methods of literature and the natural sciences. I have seen great architectures presented to students as if architectures were species of fauna in a prehistoric wilderness. Masterpieces of painting, sculpture, music are cataloged, analyzed, annotated as if they were so many bugs in successive test-tubes. It is no part of the experience of art to learn the three manners of Vermeer — still less the fifty-seven manners of Picasso.

Masterpieces of art are best known to those who have themselves attempted masterpieces; nor should we expect new masterpieces to spring from a soil not prepared for them by the practice of many whose craft attained something less than greatness. Music, painting, and architecture are the more stately brothers of the homely arts and need to be cherished with these, not in cathedral and palace, still less in the museum, but in family, neighborhood and school. These more perfect expressions and symbols of the creative impulse have never flourished in forcing beds apart from the common garden in which all art is rooted; and I am sure that this isolation is the true cause of their impoverishment here in America.

I believe therefore that the knowledge of masterpieces is less important for our children than is their own practice of the arts. They should know at first hand the nature of the artistic process. Art brings its inestimable happiness, not through contemplation but through companionship. Those who have never used a brush or a chisel, who have never danced or composed a sonnet, know very little about art; and our children, to each of whom is given at birth, abundantly if not equally, the basic sensibilities and promptings of art, will leave our schools dulled in soul if they have not found there opportunities for the awakening and strengthening of these aptitudes.

I have heard the arts defined as avenues of self-expression — or, to use a more fashionable term, of self-realization. These are true definitions, but much too narrow. Their currency, I think, arises from an excessive concern with the introspective

art of painting. Idea and feeling are as often collective as individual and as often demand a collective expression; for that reason the social arts such as architecture ought to have a place in our schools beside music and painting and the art of letters, and we should encourage those manual arts in which a search for form may be made integral to contemporary methods of manufacture. Machine techniques are likewise inseparable from modern expression and should be invaluable in re-establishing in our schools that unity of life and art which we know is essential to social health.

In all of this teaching, skill should be thought of as a by-product or as a means to an end. The important purpose is to assist the student to discover the meaning of form: of form as a necessity of his own being and as a binding factor in the structure of society. Through the practice of the arts the student learns to search for and attain form, seeking out accords and sequences, setting the parts in relation to the whole and the whole in relation to idea and technique; and in doing this he learns the power of form to clothe and animate not his own thought and feeling merely, but also the thought and feeling of his time.

The student who plans a house, working out in his mind the shapes and relationships of living room, kitchen, bed-room, garage and garden has learned more about correlation and ratio than he who demonstrates by rule a hundred algebraic equations. The student who plays *Pyramus* before an audience of his classmates, blinking at *Thisbe* through the fingers of Sweet and Lovely *Wall*, has learned more about cooperative enterprise than is found in the most solemn page of Fergusen's *Introduction to the Outlines of Elementary Sociology*. The student who makes a cake, stirring into it skill, common sense, art and a good appetite, has learned more about science than he who adds any amount of chlorine to carbonic acid. The ingredients of a cake can be blended into a very good simulacrum of the good life.

It is this liberation of the creative impulse, this making and doing free of dogma and necessity, free of self-interest and possession, which makes the practice of the arts the most civilizing of our educational techniques. It should be our typical and central technique. Segregated no longer in those remote annexes called "art departments" or timidly available as "extra-curricular activity" to those who dare the scorn of their classmates, the artist's way of working should fill every inch of the schoolhouse with its transfiguring light.

Our schoolhouses should be made ready for that light. Our schoolhouses are built too carefully for precept and formula; for the static reception of funded knowledge; we must open them to activity and freedom. We must make them into workshops — into aggregations of workshops, each shaped for exercise and practice. It will be no calamity if in this fulfillment we should suppress about half of our laboratories of science, two-thirds of our textbooks, and every one of our classrooms.

There should be workshops and studios not only for the plastic arts of painting and carving but workshops for the making of music and for dancing; workshops where stories and poems are made; workshops for textiles, ceramics and metalware; for photography, model-making and the graphic arts; workshops for the designing of houses and of such products of industry as come within the range of the student's aptitudes.

There should be workshops which prepare the student for the art of living together in families — that ridiculous name "domestic science" being forever anathema; workshops for the arts of living together in communities — I mean of course the art of politics; and workshops for those applications of science which we call technologies — since these also must be made accessible to those who will use them as the agencies of art.

The architecture of our schoolhouses must reaffirm that which the arts teach. We have had enough of those solemn monuments which imprison pupil and teacher within the solemn romances of our architects. Let's have low and rambling buildings laid out around green and white-walled courts, separated from the sun-filled shops by walls of glass; buildings adapted without affectation to the activities of work and play; buildings which nevertheless are full of grace. Set these buildings in wide lawns; let them be free of exterior steps and basements; frame them in elm and evergreen.

We see around us the corrupting winds which the great wars have awakened, the filth and disorder, the hatreds and brutalities they have engendered, the dissolution of the values by which the nation lived. We see that our children must rebuild our world and we know that we must prepare them for that rebuilding.

How then shall we teach them a way of building, persuade them of a noble purpose in their building? By training them for production and earning, for security, possession and enjoyment: the well-fed robots who shall "outwork, outproduce, outinvent, outprosper and outconsume" any other people on earth?

William James said that education is without value unless it is the right kind of education. He said that our faith in education is much too naive. We think of education as the salvation of democracy without being curious of the ways of education and of its objectives.

Education is only genuine when anchored in some definite and true conception of the good life.

ARCHITECTURE AND ART

Christopher Tunnard

Christopher Tunnard, Chairman, Section of City Planning and Research, Yale School of Fine Arts, author of "Gardens in the Modern Landscape", and an editor of TASK, is interested in the aesthetic problems of cities.

IS Architecture an art?

Not so long ago this question would have seemed unnecessary; today there is reason for asking it.

Architecture is unique in functioning where art and science meet. It has a social function, a scientific function, and an aesthetic function. Perhaps that is why it is called the *Mistress Art* — or used to be. Just now the proportion of art in architecture is a doubtful factor. Other functions of architecture are assuming relatively greater importance.

Consider the social function. An interesting development in the thirties was the appearance of new forms of building — modern factories, community centers, low-cost housing. Architects developed new plans — they had to. They also learned to get maximum sunshine in winter and to exclude sun in summer, and many other advances connected with space arrangement. They tried to make all planning more practical, more flexible, for all kinds of people. A worthy aim!

The result has been a noticeably lop-sided development of technique over content. The approach is all from the plan. "The plan is the generator." Some of the most unfortunate buildings have resulted from this one-sided approach — just as bad as the cheese-paring, minimum-standard approach. How long can people live in practical, flexible space when they cannot admire it from the outside — even when they are told it is "good for them"? Architecture is not just treatment of space, nor just a matter aesthetically of mass and line. People want more than "clean lines" and "organic planning".

Then consider the scientific function. Architects have been forced to become engineering-minded due to advances in techniques and the production of new materials. This has been good for them. But in America, where the engineer is traditionally so important, they have tended to bow before his greater strength — even to identify themselves with the engineering discipline. This is unfortunate. Engineering is clearly a separate science. But carrying the slogan, "form follows function", to its logical conclusion has led many architects into an exaggerated pseudo-scientific attitude toward building.

Architecture partakes of so many skills that we must be careful not to let any one of them engross it. At the moment, I notice a tendency to overemphasize both sociology and engineering, both of which are essential items in the architect's equipment, but which lead to grave errors if they are unleavened by art. One might say these two ingredients by themselves result in a product which is half-baked.

The way to correct this state of affairs is to put art first. Architecture is first and foremost an art, but it is an art with social and scientific content and foundations. If one recognizes the fact that art is the key in this mixture of skills, architecture immediately becomes stronger, more able to stand on its own feet.

What architect nowadays proclaims he is an artist? The ones who do are suspect. One of the last American architects who claimed this distinction and practiced it was Louis Sullivan. Most architects would prefer to be called technicians, planners, businessmen or even gentlemen.

Buildings of distinction are always designed by artists. Run-of-the-mill buildings can be designed by planners and gentlemen. We have too many of the latter; more than our share. I sympathize with Lewis Mumford when he can find almost nothing to praise but the Statler Hotel in Washington. All the latest New York buildings, including the UN complex, he finds largely lacking. No doubt these were planned by architects who fancy themselves economists or businessmen. Business has forced them into this frame of mind. No one deserves blame, but let us not call it architecture.

The way out for architecture is difficult. It involves a completely different training for the young. It demands boldness and no cringing. We cannot afford to wince at the words "beauty" and "proportion". I do not think that the architect Dudok ignores aesthetics — I think he is proud to call himself an artist. I think, too, that if the principles of education outlined by Dean Hudnut in his excellent article elsewhere in this issue were in operation anywhere we might feel happier about our future architects. But it is not, and we need a change of mind before we can achieve it.

If we can accept the reality of beauty in architecture, this change will have come about. If we continue to hope for beauty as a by-product of design, good buildings will not be the result. A positive approach to aesthetics is essential if architecture is to survive as a useful profession.

THE PRESS AND PLANNING

Frederick Gutheim

WHEN newspapers become interested in a subject, and commence to devote much of their precious newsprint to it, you may be sure their editors think people are interested.

But how are people to get worked up enough about housing and city planning to command the attention of the press unless the press cooperates? This is the hen-egg problem.

We can be sure that if people really do get worked up, their actions, proposals and decisions will appear as news to editors.

An editor with vision will be able to see that housing and city planning are subjects that have great news value. They intimately affect homes and families. They have — if only potentially — what the advertising people nauseatingly call "you-appeal."

If editors can be shown how such appeal can be developed, how the interest people inherently have in these subjects can be translated into newspaper readership, they can be depended upon to take the necessary steps. This is one way a more active participation of the press in housing and city planning can be secured.

The other way is to develop, without the help of the press, such a large and popular measure of activity that editors cannot very well overlook it. This can be done by employing other means of mass communication, or by meetings, exhibitions and by astute publicity.

Mere clamor is not enough. It quickly dies, and leaves no tangible residue. We must remember that the men who write the news are not trained as specialists in this field. To write successfully about housing and city planning and architecture they will need help. Despite great efforts on the part of the press — and examples of such cooperation are not difficult to find — the popular impact of housing and planning ideas may be meagre. There has been too little understanding of how difficult it is to write well about technical subjects in order to interest the masses of readers.

Architects and planners can help here.

These technicians are better qualified than most of them think to play the leading role of publicist. To realize a great vision of a building or a city plan, to employ the resources of presentation, of persuasion, of giving faith and conviction, architects and planners have devoted much careful study. They are not inexperienced in putting over a big story to a building committee, to public agencies, to boards of directors, or to cooperative groups.

These are the talents that can be put to use in helping the press write interestingly, understandably, convincingly, readably about housing, architecture and planning.

Frederick Gutheim is a member of the editorial staff of the New York Herald Tribune. He edited "Frank Lloyd Wright on Architecture", and his most recent book, "Houses for Family Living", was published in January 1948 by The Women's Foundation.

ON ARRIVAL

John Bayley

... The day we arrived at Naples I was on deck by 8 A.M. We were gliding over a sapphire sea past high rose-colored islands with stone houses on them. (Like California but a larger prospect and the buildings of the same stone as the islands.) A rose, sapphire, and beige color scheme. The lighting brilliant but not our sharp, hard American light. Soon Vesuvius was on our right and Naples on our left. The town lies flatly with hills to the rear and some rather steep mounts in the town with castles on top.

We docked at what had been a flashy attempt by Mussolini to provide a *Gare Maritime*. But like all his efforts, it's rather sad. A kind of jazz modern style with absolutely no quality at all, Odeon picturehouse modern. A kind of threadbare, modern pastiche, and to make it even more dismal, bombed to hell.

From the boat I could see the Palazzo Reale, a gloriously bleak and enormous bourbon building. I adore the bourbon architecture of the kingdom of the two Sicilies. It has a Spanish vastness like the Escorial, together with Jesuit Baroque facaderie. Think of red and gold rooms, gorgeous uniforms, and the operas of Rossini. I must re-read Sitwell's "Southern Baroque" before I visit the Caserta. Other Bourbon-Sicilie castles are "Capodimonte", built from 1735–1839, and "La Favorita", a villa of Ferdinand I, built by Marvuglia in 1799 in the Chinese style. There is also an English garden of 1782 by Groeffer near Caserta that I will inspect.

The battle for existence is so fierce in Naples that it's like getting into a hornets' nest. The famous "age-old" tenements look like a 17th century Stuyvesant Town to me. And then there is a lot of 14th century stuff. I won't describe the difficulties of embarkation; suffice it to say that I landed at 10 A.M. and at 7 P.M. I was still struggling on the pier. At about 10 P.M. picture me and a Swiss doctor in a Dodge car blundering through the industrial suburbs of South Naples. We kept ending up in vacant lots and dead ends and in bombed-out areas. We were trying to locate the auto-strade to Sorrento but never found it, and for hours pressed through contiguous slums and villages. It was Saturday night and the streets were packed solid, which required constant horn blowing. At about midnight we arrived at Pompeii where we had a drink in an icy dining room with a terrazzo floor over which some hungry looking cats were roaming. To finish this "giorno cativo", we finally arrived at Sorrento.

Our hotel was decorated in the Bavarian style in oak with pictures of people dancing tarantellas. Sorrento, I should say, was much appreciated about 1900 by the Swiss, Germans and Austrians.

John Bayley, one of TASK's first editors is studying in Rome for a year. Since the opportunities for foreign travel are once again expanding, many of our readers may take a personal interest in his letter (necessarily condensed by the editors) written upon his arrival.

Now it caters to week-enders from Naples. The buildings are sea-side hotel style with big signs.

The view was really magnificent. Vesuvius and a huge bay with great cliffs with villages (stone houses, orange tile roofs, campaniles, lemon orchards, etc.) and steep mountains behind, and in the distance, Capri. A gigantic panorama and everywhere cultivation, cypresses and villas. I suppose it's one of the great landscapes.

That evening we ascended to a famous Belvedere on top of a monastery. On our left was the Gulf of Salerno and on the right the Bay of Naples, a vast prospect. Directly beneath, monks were watering their garden in a patio and it was just the last moments of the twilight. When it was dark we descended and were met by a monk who showed us classrooms of orphans. We represented the new regime — the Trumaneers. After heavy largesse we departed.

The next point of interest was Pompeii, a modern town with a fantastic baroque church of about 1909. No camera with me unfortunately. After some tedious wrangles with guide and peddlers, we began an inspection of the remains. They're not a great thrill unless you know a lot of archaeology. I think the historians have painted too flattering a picture. I was surprised by the narrow streets lined with shops. Phallic symbols on everything. If you received punishment from the local court and did not belong to the upper class, you were thrown to lions or whatever in the local arena. I found the whole thing savage and primitive. There were however beauties. In the baths some stucco ceilings — one that I have never seen copied — and in the House of the Velti (excavated circa 1900) perfectly beautiful wall paintings — like sheets of pottery covered with slender dream buildings and grotesques. The colors are the famous red, yellow, ivory, and black, and then there are very transparent little vignettes in blues, greens, etc. Pompeii was excavated a long time ago when people took away with them everything they found. The Naples museum is full of stuff from Pompeii; there is not one of the places left that inspired Adam. The only thing left was excavated in 1900.

We left Pompeii, and on to Rome. Many evidences of war on all sides, and an heroic reconstruction going on. People rebuilding bridges by hand. The first building to be rebuilt in every town is the church. The auto-strade went over very flat coastal plains. Roads lined with straight trees and canals, and to the right the Appenines with an occasional hill town. The roads were jammed with carts, busses, motorcycles. The towns, dusty and poor; lots of unemployment. A typical piazza has a Baroque fountain in the middle, some dusty 19th century stucco buildings in academic classic, and a sad modern job with balconies and peeling stucco.

We travelled along and suddenly arrived in front of St. John's Lateran and the Lateran Palace. All the trouble of the voyage and the preparations were suddenly all worth it. It was about five in the afternoon. The great Baroque structures rose before us majestic, sublime, authoritative, in a word, Roman. And then nobody had ever told me about travertine. Our buildings here are in golden travertine, when it gets old it takes on a deep gold or ivory hue. Drunk with excitement, we proceeded and suddenly there was the Colosseum. I had expected it to look dirty, small and unimpressive; instead it was immense, grand and Roman. Then on to St. Peter's. We swept into the great piazza just at sunset. The fountains were leaping and there was just enough light to reveal the grandeur of the composition. We drove up to the left of the facade of the church. Here was experienced a moment of Beauty. We were standing in that doorway, or rather gate, which is at the left of St. Peter's and which leads to the Sacristy. Swiss guards were wearing the blue and black uniform as his Holiness is not in residence. Beside me were the uniforms conceived by Michelangelo. I could see the transept designed by Michelangelo through the gate; in the other direction lay Bernini's masterpiece. Overhead towered Maderna's facade. The bells were ringing, the fountains were leaping and the sun was setting with gold and mauve cloud effects.

We got back in the car and headed up a steep hill and without difficulty found the Academy.

PLANNING NOTES

C. Eric Carlson

THE need of a plan for planning and for coordination of the coordinators seems to rank along with general citizen apathy and the fund shortage plague as a major obstacle to the development of a nation-wide public planning policy. The past year has witnessed substantial progress in planning. However, this progress cannot be measured so much in terms of physical accomplishment as it can in terms of an increasing awareness of planning weaknesses and the beginnings of steps to overcome these weaknesses.

Planning as a profession is weak — weak in numbers, weak in organization, weak in the ability to mobilize agreement on principles, standards, legislation; even definitions of the word "planning" vary widely among members of the profession. But, during the year, the importance of citizens' interest and understanding of planning has been expounded by groups ranging from the Chamber of Commerce of the United States (which sponsored a Businessmen's Conference on Urban Problems) to the Building Industries Division of the Progressive Citizens of America. In fact, judging from the rash of increased citizens organization interest in the field, planning may soon be "bustin' out all over" again. Consistent public support for planning principles and ideas perhaps awaits a different political and economic climate, but there are signs that planners no longer consider themselves on the defensive or as "holding the fort" until a less lush economic period forces attention to their programs.

As Charles E. Merriam and other authorities have pointed out, it is a paradoxical situation indeed which results in most of the nation's cities being hard-up financially during the time of greatest prosperity that the country has known. The weaknesses of city planning, of course, are in many respects tied up with the general weaknesses of our cities as self-contained units of government — operating, as most of them do, within archaic political boundaries, amidst overlapping and conflicting layers of taxing districts, hampered by inadequate home rule powers, and lacking in proper numerical representation in their rural-dominated state legislatures. Moreover, the concept of planning as an indispensable tool of administration, involving the integration of plans and improvement projects with carefully conceived capital budget programs, is still not widely accepted. At a time when money seems to flow freely for a host of other causes and projects, it is also paradoxical that there is hardly a local, state, national (or even international!) citizens organization in the planning and housing field that can boast of a budget of even $50,000 a year. Obviously, public planners interested in greater local

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and national citizens support will be ramming their heads against a stone wall until more adequate financing can be secured for promotion, education, research, and an organized approach to the solution of planning problems.

In the meantime, as no national public planning body* exists to give guidance and direction to the now uncoordinated and unrelated efforts of planners in various communities, they must look elsewhere — to existing institutions and organizations, citizens councils and other movements — for backing, for the chance to spread planning ideas through existing media to influential groups and segments of the population. This is why recent efforts on a national level to coordinate and stimulate the growth of community and state citizens councils are of much significance and should be of much concern to the physical planner.

The brief review below of a few recent planning developments may dispel the notion that planning has stood still since the abolition of the National Resources Planning Board. But certainly the alarming complacency of some established professionals is far from warranted. Enormous obstacles remain to planning "effectuation" and execution. These can only be overcome with courage, imagination and boundless enthusiasm. The job of selling and vitalizing planning to the common man is the current planning frontier — a frontier on which there has been but little progress until recently.

Several advances in planning public relations and education — the Philadelphia City Planning Exhibit; the "advertising" campaign of the Cleveland City Planning Commission; the issuance of a textbook, *Buffalo, Your City*, sponsored by the Buffalo City Planning Association for use in all the schools of that city; the cooperation of labor groups in the San Francisco planning program — point the way for much more intensive work in this field. Another motion picture on planning to follow up *The City* and a popular citizens magazine dealing with planning and civic affairs are two other needed specific undertakings which would aid the cause of planning promotion.

Planning problems, of course, are not confined to this country. On the international scene, the International Federation for Housing and Town Planning is preparing for its XIXth Congress, to be held at the Kongresshaus, Zurich, Switzerland, June 20–26, 1948. Morris H. Hirsh, recently appointed Acting Secretary-General, has had a diversified planning background, and was formerly a member of both the Chicago Association for Planning Research and Action and the New York Metropolitan Committee for Planning. (See Mr. Hirsh's communication in this issue. — *Ed.*)

Two other international news items: The UNESCO General Conference in Mexico City during November turned down a proposal that UNESCO take a part in more directly promoting planning and housing activity on the grounds that the organization already has too much to do, considering its funds and other commitments.

The United Nations, however, may soon issue an international quarterly review, containing technical papers on housing and planning. This will be sponsored by the Social Commission, Economic and Social Council.

Also of significance in the international exchange of ideas and techniques is the interest shown in establishing foreign professional contacts. The Soviet "iron curtain," for example, does not seem to cover planning and housing. Ukrainian architects, engineers, and planners are most desirous of learning about American practices and offer to exchange news of their own activities, according to a letter from V. Zabolotny, president, Section of Architecture and Construction, Ukrainian Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries, Kiev.

There are a growing number of foreign planning publications, several of which successfully survived the war years. For those who may not otherwise have knowledge of them, a few in the English language are listed below:

News Sheet — International Federation for Housing and Town Planning, 13 Suffolk Street, Haymarket, London, S. W. 1. Summarizes major planning developments, country by country. Issued every several months.

Information Bulletin and *Reference Sheets* — Association for Planning and Regional Reconstruction, 34 Gordon Square, London, W. C. 1. The *Bulletin*, somewhat similar in nature to the *American Society of Planning Officials Newsletter*, is a monthly, at 6 d. per copy. The *Reference Sheets* contain carefully compiled and annotated bibliographical material, and accompany the *Bulletin*. The Association is also to publish soon *The Planning Critic*, an independent planning journal, each issue of which will be devoted to a particular aspect of physical planning. The editorial committee of twelve represents the following fields: agriculture, architecture, education, geography, industry, law, local administration, medicine, public opinion, public utilities, sociology, and town planning.

Town and Country Planning — Town and Country Planning Association, 28 King Street, Covent Garden, W. C. 2. A quarterly review.

* The Council of Economic Advisers, some have claimed, is a partial substitute for the NRPB. But the Council's staff and funds are meagre and its limited approach has been one of furnishing advice on broad national economic problems, with little attention paid to physical planning or resources development.

Journal of the Town Planning Institute — Offices at 18 Ashley Place, London, S. W. 1. A bi-monthly.

Town Planning Review — University Press of Liverpool, 175 Brownlow Hall, Liverpool 3. A quarterly.

Layout for Living — Community Planning Association of Canada, 56 Lyon Street, Ottawa. A bi-monthly. 8 pp. The Association is a self governing body "to foster public understanding of, and participation in, community planning in Canada."

Plan — Association for Planning, Luntmakaregatan 25, Stockholm, Sweden. A quarterly, subscription 8 Swedish crowns. Each issue contains a brief English summary. The Association consists of agriculturalists, architects, economists, engineers, industrialists, sociologists, statisticians, surveyors, and all governmental and local authorities.

The Way Ahead — The Netherlands En Route to Reconstruction — Society "Stichting Bouw", 62, Koninginnegracht, The HAGUE, Holland. Quarterly Economic Review. Single copies, $1; Subscription, $3.

There are a number of other foreign municipal and architectural publications that often devote considerable attention to various aspects of planning, but they have not been included in the above listing.

The "grand tour" of F. J. Osborn, leading British planner, throughout this country left an aftermath of heightened attention among planners to possibilities for the development of a New Towns program here. TASK readers will be disappointed, however, to learn that work on the British new towns will be sharply curtailed as a result of the recently announced capital investment policies for 1948. The move is caused by the economic crisis and is part of the drive to make fullest use of labor and materials for the export industries. Housing will be limited by timber imports and the number of houses under construction will fall after June 1948. New towns designed to serve immediate industrial and mining needs will continue within the limits of the housing plan, while work on those for decentralization will be reduced.

In the United States no predictable trend can be observed from recent events that will provide any well-defined clues to the future of planning. Inexperienced younger planners still have some trouble in "breaking in" and getting established in the field. The increasingly high salaries being offered for well-qualified planners, however, indicates that the profession is reaching an improved status and recognition.

The picture with respect to national planning organizations and correlation of their efforts is still a confused one. At the ASPO Cincinnati conference last May attention was called to the desirability of a widely publicized National Planning Week in 1948, to be jointly sponsored by the four national planning organizations (American Society of Planning Officials, American Planning and Civic Association, American Institute of Planners, and National Planning Association).

Without such an effort, it was pointed out, the individual conferences of the separate organizations attract little or no attention in the national press, and do little to stimulate citizens interest in planning and dramatize planning issues. The only degree of coordination noted since the Cincinnati meeting is that the conferences of each of the national planning organizations have been fairly evenly spaced throughout the year: the National Planning Association sponsored a National Conference on the Community in October; the American Institute of Planners meets in Chicago in January; the American Planning and Civic Association meets in Newark in May, and the American Society of Planning Officials is scheduled to meet in New York in October.

Several other organizational developments on the national level may be of interest to those who would like to see more vigorous promotion of planning. A National Council for Community Improvement (present office at 1713 K Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.) has been incorporated with the following three purposes:

1. To assist state and local groups to organize for community improvement
2. To act in a liaison capacity among governmental and private agencies in meeting more effectively local requirements for community improvement
3. To stimulate research in this field, to help to harmonize the objectives of the Council's member groups and to collect information and experience where all of them may make use of it.

Temporary officers of the Council are as follows: President, Francis J. Brown (Executive Secretary, President's Commission on Higher Education); 1st Vice President, U. S. Grant III (President, American Planning and Civic Association); 2nd Vice President, Kathryn McHale (General Director, American Association of University Women); Secretary, John Miller, (Assistant Director, National Planning Association); Treasurer, Daniel W. Bell (President, American Security and Trust Company); Chairman, Board of Trustees, Joseph J. Lane, (*House and Garden* magazine). Barbara Terrett, formerly with ASPO, is serving as Assistant to the President. It is expected that one of the Council's future activities will be to organize a National Conference on

Community Improvement, to be called by President Truman sometime in 1948. The Council has sent out letters to more than 130 organizations in the community improvement field, inviting them to contribute to the Council's common goal.

Still another development with regard to national coordination of citizens planning efforts took place at the National Planning Association sponsored conference in West Point in October. Represented were 37 national organizations, 18 regional and state groups, and 31 local and community groups. Chief discussion centered around whether to make further exploration of the need or to organize a new national agency at once to serve state and local community councils. An organization committee was elected, chaired by E. J. Coil of the National Planning Association, to achieve objectives very much similar to those of the National Council for Community Improvement.

A third development is a National Conference on Community Life to be held in Washington, D. C., May 6, 7, 8th (1948). Sessions during this conference will be devoted to housing and community planning. Mrs. C. H. L. Pennock, 10 E. 40th St., N. Y. 16, N. Y. is acting as secretary.

At the time of this writing, consolidation and merger of some of the above national efforts was being discussed, although nothing definite had yet materialized.

On the state level considerable citizens support for planning can be expected from some of the growing and dynamic state citizens organizations, such as the Committee for Kentucky, the Georgia Citizens Council, the New Jersey Citizens Conference, and the New York State Citizens Council. The latter group is especially fortunate in having received a Carnegie grant of $70,000 to carry on its work over a 5 year period.

On the local scene, the planning research, education and action groups, most of which had been fairly dormant during the summer, are again becoming more active. It was the decision of representatives of these groups who met at Cincinnati during the American Society of Planning Officials conference that efforts should be concentrated on developing local programs, rather than to form a new national organization. A loose federation to function mainly through correspondence among the groups was recommended, and exploratory investigations were to be conducted of the four national planning organizations to see which of them might offer the federation the use of services, facilities, publications, and staff for the active promotion of planning on a coordinated basis. In the light of the national organizational developments described above, perhaps affiliation with a new national citizens council or conference will be possible.

Telesis, "an organization concerned with the improvement of our environment", continues to be concerned with the promotion of a regional citizens planning association for the San Francisco Bay area.

The Chicago *Association for Planning Research and Action*, composed of students and professionals in city planning, economics, geography, public administration, sociology and other related fields, has assigned topics for study, to be reported on at future meetings. Interest in a children's planning textbook has been aroused. There has also been further work on the regional study of the need for metropolitan planning in the Chicago area. A recent meeting was devoted to a discussion of the planning problems of Robbins, Illinois, a Negro slum town on the outskirts of Chicago.

The New York Metropolitan Committee for Planning sponsored the first of a series of meetings on the planning problems of New York in November. The meeting, designed to be an educational one, included the following panel speakers: Paul Ross, Secretary to the Mayor of New York City; Lawrence M. Orton, Commissioner, New York City Planning Commission; Frank W. Herring, Director, Planning and Statistics Division, Port of New York Authority; William Zeckendorff, President, Webb and Knapp, Inc., and Henry S. Churchill of Churchill-Fulmer Associates. Frederick Gutheim, special editor of the *Herald-Tribune*, served as moderator. Attention was focussed on the need for more active citizens support of public planning efforts in the city.

One new direction for planning, in which the Committee cooperated last year, has already proved its worth. On a local level, the Committee on Education and Research of the Citizens' Housing Council of New York, headed by John Dean, has plotted areas of the housing and planning fields that require further study. As a result, students from the classes of one or another of the committee members, consisting of educators from the schools and universities of the city, are assigned to specific research projects. Several of the completed studies already have been given wide publicity. This type of coordination of planning research could well be adopted on a national basis.

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